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THE

ENGLISH REVIEW;

OR, AN

ABSTRACT

OF

ENGLISH AND FOREIGN LITERATURE.

FOR THE YEAR M,DCC,XC.

VOLUME XV.

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THE

ENGLISH REVIEW,

For JANUARY 1790.

ART. I. *Eſſays on Phyſiognomy; deſigned to promote the Knowledge and the Love of Mankind. By John Caſpar Lavater, Citizen of Zurich, and Miniſter of the Goſpel. Illuſtrated by more than Eight Hundred Engravings accurately copied, and ſome Duplicates added from Originals. Executed by, or under the Inſpection of, Thomas Holloway. Tranſlated from the French by Henry Hunter, D. D. Miniſter of the Scots Church, London-Wall. Vol. I.* Imperial 4to. 6l. 6s. boards. Murray. London, 1789.

ALL the arts dependent on *deſign* have, within theſe few years, made a moſt aſtoniſhing progreſs in Britain. Any perſon who remembers what we *were* in this reſpect, has only to open his eyes, and almoſt every ſurrounding object will convince him of our progreſs. The *paintings* which adorn the apartments of the great and rich, the *prints* which ornament the houſes of the middling ranks, the *forms* which preſent themſelves in every piece of furniture, all ſpeak the ſame language, announcing the triumph of the arts.

When we ſee the hand of the artiſt every day occupied in converting things employed in the moſt common uſes of life into objects of taſte, it would have been ſurpriſing indeed had the adorning the vehicles of literature been neglected. The embelliſhment of books therefore by the hand of the engraver is becoming every day more common; and our country has produced

ſeveral publications of this kind which have great merit. But the preſent tranſlation of Lavater's Eſſays on Phyſiognomy is the moſt truly ſplendid work that has hitherto appeared from the Britiſh preſs; and the exertions of all concerned in it ſurely deſerve that patronage which they have received, and we doubt not will continue to receive from a generous public.

To enter into an examination of the merits of the various engravings executed by Sharp, Hall, Holloway, Trotter, and other celebrated artiſts employed in this work, would require a volume inſtead of the ſmall room that we can poſſibly afford. Nor indeed is it neceſſary; their names alone imply excellency, eſpecially when we add that there appears to have been a generous rivalſhip among them, that no one has proſtituted his name, but that each has really executed the work aſcribed to him, and in his beſt manner.

In moſt works where engravings are introduced, the plates can be conſidered as nothing more than *mere* embelliſhments. In the work now before us this is by no means the caſe. The plates here are eſſentially neceſſary: they are indeed the text which the author illuſtrates; without them he would, in many parts, be unintelligible to every reader, but with them his meaning is perfectly clear to the moſt inferior capacity. The plates being thus *eſſentials*, the artiſts were to take care that they ſhould exactly correſpond with the ideas and illuſtrations of the author*. Their attention to this great object is highly to be commended; and it is with pleaſure we can pronounce, upon an attentive compariſon of their engravings with many of thoſe of the foreign editions (we pretend not to have examined every plate), that in this, as well as in every other reſpect, they have a decided ſuperiority.

Dr. Hunter, the tranſlator, has executed his department of the work with equal ſucceſs. The tranſlation is at the ſame time literal and elegant; it poſſeſſes all the eaſe of a paraphraſe, while it adheres ſtrictly to the original. In many places it was difficult, yet abſolutely neceſſary to give the *preciſe* meaning of his author: in all ſuch paſſages that we have examined we muſt highly commend the care and attention of the tranſlator to preſerve unſophiſticated the genuine ſentiments of Lavater.

That the reader may judge of the tranſlation, we ſhall inſert the eighth fragment. We inſert it too as it contains a defence

* Had they failed in this, the whole would have been a chaos, and the reader would have riſen from the peruſal of the work with conceptions of phyſiognomy very different from thoſe which Mr. Lavater intended to convey.

of

of the ſcience of phyſiognomy, as it has no reference to the plates, and can therefore be underſtood without them, and as it exhibits a good ſpecimen of the manner of this eccentric author.

'FRAGMENT VIII.

'Of PHYSIOGNOMY conſidered as a Science.

'Phyſiognomy, admitting it to be ſomething real, never can become a ſcience.' This will be repeated a thouſand and a thouſand times by thoſe who may read my book, and thoſe who may not: this they will, perhaps with obſtinacy, maintain, though there be nothing more eaſy than to make an unanſwerable reply to this aſſertion.

'What then is this reply?

'Here it is:

'Phyſiognomy may be improved into a ſcience as well as every other thing that bears the name of ſcience. As well as phyſics—for it is a branch of natural philoſophy; as well as medicine—for it conſtitutes a part of that ſcience. What would medicine be without the knowledge of ſymptoms? and what were ſymptomatical knowledge without phyſiognomy? As well as theology—for it belongs to the province of theology. What is it, in effect, that conducts us to the Deity, if it be not the knowledge of man? and how do we attain the knowledge of man, but by his face and form. As well as mathematics—for it is connected with the ſcience of calculation; ſince it meaſures and aſcertains curves and magnitude, with its relations known and unknown. As well as the belles lettres—for it is comprehended under that department of literature; as it unfolds and determines the idea of the beautiful, the ſublime, &c.

'Phyſiognomy, like every other ſcience, may, to a certain point, be reduced to fixed rules, which it is poſſible to teach and learn, to communicate, receive, and tranſmit. But in it, as in every other ſcience, much muſt be left to genius, to ſentiment; and in ſome parts it is ſtill deficient in ſigns and principles, determinate or capable of being determined.

'One of two things muſt be granted. All other ſciences muſt be ſtripped of that appellation, or phyſiognomy muſt be admitted to the ſame rank.

'Every truth, every ſpecies of knowledge, which has diſtinct ſigns, which is founded on clear and certain principles, is ſcientific; and it is ſo, as far as it can be communicated by words, images, rules, determinations. The only queſtion therefore is, to determine if the ſtriking and inconteſtable difference of human phyſionomies and forms may be perceived not only in an obſcure and confuſed manner, but whether it be not poſſible to fix the characters, the ſigns, the expreſſions of that difference; whether there be not ſome means of ſettling and indicating certain diſtinctive ſigns of ſtrength and weakneſs, of health and ſickneſs, of ſtupidity and intelligence, of an elevated and a grovelling ſpirit, of virtue and vice, &c. and whether there be not ſome means of diſtinguiſhing preciſely the different

degrees and ſhades of theſe principal characters; in other words, whether it be poſſible to claſs them ſcientifically. This is the true ſtate of the queſtion, the only point to be inveſtigated; and if there be any perſon who will not take the trouble of examining it thoroughly, I tell him plainly it is not for him I write, and that to all the faſhionable wit he may chooſe to employ on the ſubject, I will make no reply. The ſequel of this work will put the matter in diſpute beyond a doubt.

'What opinion would be formed of the man who ſhould think of baniſhing phyſics, medicine, theology, or the belles lettres, from the dominions of ſcience—only becauſe each of them ſtill preſents a vaſt field hitherto uncultivated, offers ſo much obſcurity and uncertainty, ſo many objects which require to be determined?

'Is it not certain that the naturaliſt may purſue his firſt obſervations to a particular point, that he may analiſe them, clothe them with words, communicate them, and ſay, 'This is the method I obſerved in conducting my reſearches; theſe are the objects which I have conſidered, the obſervations I have collected; there is the order in which I arranged, decompounded, compared them; ſuch are the conſequences I have drawn, ſuch the path I have purſued; go and do likewiſe.' But will it be poſſible for him always to hold the ſame language? Will his ſpirit of obſervation never arrive at truths more refined, and of a nature not to be communicated? Will he never attempt to ſoar beyond a height to which he can point with his finger? Will he always confine himſelf to what he can, though with difficulty, accommodate to the comprehenſion of the perſon who creeps feebly after him? Are phyſics leſs a ſcience on that account?——Of how many truths had Leibnitz a preſentiment, truths inacceſſible to others, before a Wolf had traced in the ſpheres, to which his daring genius darted itſelf, thoſe paths in which every frigid logician can now ſaunter at his eaſe! Does it not hold equally true of all the ſciences? Was any one of them perfectly known from its commencement? The bold flights and the piercing eye of genius muſt always outſtrip, by many ages, the progreſs that leads to perfection. What a ſpace of time muſt elapſe before a Wolf ariſes to point out the avenues, and to clear the paths of each truth diſcovered, foreſeen, or ſeen darkly and at a diſtance! In modern times, what philoſopher more enlightened than Bonnet? In him are happily aſſociated the genius of Leibnitz, with the coolneſs and penetration of Wolf. Who poſſeſſes more than he does the ſpirit of obſervation? Who diſtinguiſhes with more preciſion the true from what is only probable, and the obſervation from its conſequences?

'Is there a better guide, a guide more gentle, more amiable? Yet, is he able to communicate all he knows and feels? To whom ſhall he diſcloſe that anticipated ſentiment of truth, that reſult, that ſource of many obſervations, refined, profound, but indeterminable? Is he capable of expreſſing ſuch obſervations by ſigns, by ſounds, by images, and of deducing general rules from them? And is not all this applicable to medicine, to theology, to every ſcience and every art?

Is

'Is not painting at once the mother and daughter of phyſiognomy—is not painting a ſcience? and yet, how narrow are its bounds! 'Here is harmony, there is diſproportion; this is full of truth, force, and life; this is nature itſelf; that is ſtiff, placed in a falſe light, badly coloured, low, deformed.'

'This you might ſay, and prove by arguments which every pupil is capable of comprehending, retaining, and repeating—But can the ſchools of painting convey genius to the painter? No more than theories and courſes of the belles lettres can inſpire poetic genius. —To what an amazing height will the painter, the poet, who came ſuch from the hands of the Creator, ſoar above the mere man of rules!—But though the energetic ſentiment, the inſtinct, the faculties, which are peculiar to genius be not of a nature that admits of being caſt into an ordinary mould, and ſubjected to rules, is there nothing ſcientific in the art, nothing that is ſuſceptible of determination? The ſame holds as to phyſiognomy. It is poſſible, to a certain point, to determine phyſiognomic truth, and to expreſs it by ſigns and words. It is poſſible to ſay, 'This is the character of an exalted ſpirit, this feature is peculiar to gentleneſs, that other to anger; here is the look of contempt, and there that of candour; in this I diſcover judgment; that is the expreſſion of talents—this trait is inſeparable from genius.' But will it likewiſe be ſaid, 'It is thus you muſt obſerve; this is the road you muſt purſue, and you will find what I have found, and you will arrive at certainty?' What, ſhall it not be acknowledged that in this ſcience, as in every other, an experienced obſerver, one endowed with a happier organiſation, diſtinguiſhes himſelf by an eye more accurate, more penetrating, and capable of more extended and complicated obſervations? that he takes a bolder flight? that he frequently makes obſervations which can neither be reduced to rule, nor expreſſed in words? Does it follow that the ſcience is leſs a ſcience, in whatever can be expreſſed by ſigns, and communicated by certain rules? Has not phyſiognomy this in common with all other ſciences?——Once more, name me a ſcience in which every thing is determined—in which nothing is left that is proper and peculiar to taſte, to ſentiment, to genius? Wo to that ſcience, if ſuch an one could exiſt!—The mathematical genius himſelf, has not he a preſentiment of certain truths which are not ſuſceptible of demonſtration?

'Albert Durer meaſured the human figure; Raphael too meaſured it, but with the feeling penetration of genius. The former copied nature as an artiſt, and deſigned according to all the rules of the art; the other traced the ideal with the proportions of nature, and his deſigns are not leſs her expreſſion on that account.

'The phyſiognomiſt who is merely ſcientific, meaſures like Durer; the phyſiognomical genius meaſures and feels like Raphael. Beſides, in proportion as delicacy and acuteneſs are acquired by a ſpirit of obſervation, language will be more enriched, the greater progreſs will be made in the art of deſign, the more carefully man will ſtudy man, of all beings on the globe the moſt excellent and the moſt intereſting—the more likewiſe phyſiognomy ſhall become ſcientic, that is to ſay, more reduced to rule, and the more eaſy will it be to ſtudy

and to teach it, It will become the ſcience of ſciences, and then, properly ſpeaking, it will no longer be a ſcience—but ſenſation, the prompt and lively ſentiment of human nature. Then it would be madneſs to form it into a ſcience; we ſhould immediately ſee writing upon writing, diſpute upon diſpute, courſes of phyſiognomy opened, and thenceforward it would ceaſe to be, what it ought to be—the firſt ſcience of humanity.

'On what then ſhall I reſolve? Shall I treat phyſiognomy ſcientifically? Yes, and no: ſometimes I ſhall preſent obſervations the moſt determinate—at other times I ſhall communicate ſimple ſenſations only, leaving it to the obſerver to inveſtigate the characters of them, and to the philoſopher to fix the determinations.—On many occaſions I ſhall only invite the eye to ſee, and the heart to feel; and ſometimes, addreſſing myſelf to an indolent ſpectator, ſhall ſay, that I may not appear altogether a ſimpleton in his eyes, ſhall ſay to him in a whiſper, 'Here is ſomething ſuited to your level; and this may lead you to conjecture that, in theſe matters, others may have more diſcernment than yourſelf.'

'Allow me to conclude this fragment by applying to my ſubject ſome ideas of a great man, who, to ſingular and profound erudition, had ſuperadded the gift of diſcerning ſpirits; a gift which he poſſeſſed to ſuch a degree that, by the external look only, he decided whether a ſick man, whom all the ſkill of the phyſician could not relieve, had nevertheleſs faith to be healed.

'Now we know but in part, and our explanations, our commentaries are nothing but fragments; but when perfection is come, theſe feeble eſſays ſhall be aboliſhed. For they are hitherto only the ill-articulated language of a child; and theſe ſame ideas, theſe efforts ſhall appear childiſh to me, when I arrive at maturity. Now we ſee the glory of man darkly as through a veil; we ſhall ere long behold face to face.—Now we know but imperfectly, but I ſhall ſoon know, as I myſelf have been known, of Him who is the principle, the prime mover, and the end of all things! To him be honour and glory to all eternity! Amen.'

ADDITION

A.

'The reader will undoubtedly expect that I ſhould endeavour to prove, by ſome inſtances, that it is poſſible to reduce phyſiognomy to a ſcience. I mean to produce only a few preliminary examples; as my chief aim is to encourage the reader himſelf to engage in the career of obſervation.—Beſides, my work will furniſh continual proofs of what I advance, though I am very far from believing that the age we live in is deſtined to produce a ſcientific ſyſtem on phyſiognomies, and much leſs that I am the perſon to whom the world is to owe the obligation. Let us begin only by collecting a ſufficient number of obſervations, and endeavouring to characteriſe them with all the preciſion, all the accuracy of which we are capable. As to myſelf, my

utmoſt ambition is to prepare materials for the next age; to leave memoirs, relative to my great object, to ſome man poſſeſſed of ten times more leiſure, and of talents and philoſophic genius far ſuperior to mine; and bequeath to him, if I may ſo expreſs myſelf, this truth, 'A ſyſtem of phyſiognomy is a poſſibility.'

'The principal point in queſtion is to diſcover what is evidently determined in the features, and to fix the characteriſtic ſigns, the expreſſion of which is generally acknowledged. All I aſk, therefore, at preſent is, whether or not the ſmall head below be ſcientifically determinable from the outline of the forehead and eyebrows? whether this forehead and theſe eyebrows do not announce a character entirely different from what it would be, did the contour of the forehead form a ſtraight line, or if the eyebrows were raiſed in the form of an arch? I aſk no more.'

We have already, in two former Reviews*, taken notice of the French original, and have only to add here that we dare ſay the public will receive the tranſlation with pleaſure. It will afford amuſement to the idle, and, as announcing a new ſcience, will occupy the attention of the thinking mind. And though the philoſopher will not meet with a regular and correct theory of phyſiognomy, which the author does not promiſe, nor indeed was to be expected from the labours of one man, yet he will admire the ingenuity, acuteneſs, and various knowledge, of the writer, will be aſtoniſhed at his ardour and energy of mind, and pay that juſt tribute to his benevolence of heart which it ſo highly deſerves. Nor will he riſe up without improvement from the peruſal of the work; for though, like the alchymiſts in former days, he may not ſucceed in his main object, viz. in diſcovering an *unerring* criterion to determine the qualities of the heart and mind from the outward form, yet the ſearch will reward him with much uſeful knowledge. To the amateur this publication muſt be a real acquiſition, as, according to the preſent value of engravings, the prints alone it contains are fully equivalent to the price he pays for the whole work, and the letter-preſs may be conſidered as given gratis.

Every one acquainted with works of this kind, where ſo many artiſts are employed, muſt know that unexpected delays are unavoidable; we cannot therefore join in ſome complaints which we have heard againſt the proprietors for dilatorineſs in the publication. We are rather ſurpriſed that they have been able to do ſo much, than angry at their having done too little; and we dare ſay that gratitude for the encouragement they have met with, as well as their own intereſt, will keep their beſt exertions awake, that they may meet the ardour, and merit the further approbation of the public.

* Nov. and Dec. 1786.

ART. II. *The Scotch Preacher; or, A Collection of Sermons, by ſome of the moſt eminent Clergymen of the Church of Scotland, Vol. IV.* 12mo. 3s. ſewed. Dickſon, Edinburgh; Elliot and Kay, London, 1789.

THE public have had for ſome time before them two works in divinity, the one entitled 'The Engliſh Preacher,' the other 'The Scotch Preacher.' The firſt is a judicious compilation from the moſt celebrated Engliſh authors, and forms a very uſeful body of practical divinity.

The Scotch preacher, now in its fourth volume, is an original work, being a publication of diſcourſes by ſundry Scotch divines of the preſent day, and uniting in its plan both variety and novelty.

Conſidering this volume as a joint effort of a community, it lays claim to more of our attention than any ſingle volume publiſhed by an individual, where one quotation would ſerve to point out a general manner, and where remarks on the ſtyle of one ſermon would be applicable to all the reſt. We ſhall therefore be more minute and diſcriminating in our examination of 'The Scotch Preacher;' and ſhall firſt call the attention of our readers to the 1ſt, 2d, and 8th ſermons of the work before us; which appear to be the production of men of ſuperior parts, and are at the ſame time written in that ſplendid manner on which the public ſeem moſt willing to beſtow their approbation.

Let the following deſcription of our Saviour's reſurrection bear teſtimony to our opinion:

'Twice had the ſun gone down upon the earth, and all as yet was quiet at the ſepulchre; death held his ſceptre over the Son of God; ſtill and ſilent the hours paſſed on; the guards ſtood by their poſt, the rays of the midnight moon gleamed on their helmets, and on their ſpears; the enemies of Chriſt exulted in their ſucceſs; the hearts of his friends were ſunk in deſpondency and in ſorrow; the ſpirits of glory waited in anxious ſuſpenſe to behold the event, and wondered at the depth of the ways of God. At length the morning-ſtar ariſing in the eaſt announced the approach of light; the third day began to dawn upon the world, when on a ſudden the earth trembled to its centre, and the powers of heaven were ſhaken; an angel of God deſcended, the guards ſhrunk back from the terror of his preſence, and fell proſtrate on the ground; 'his countenance was like lightning, and his raiment was white as ſnow:' he rolled away the ſtone from the door of the ſepulchre, and ſat upon it. But who is this that cometh forth from the tomb, with dyed garments from the bed of death? He that is glorious in his appearance, walking in the greatneſs of his ſtrength! It is thy prince, O Zion! Chriſtian, it is your Lord. He hath trodden the wine-preſs alone; he hath ſtained

ſtained his raiment with blood; but now, as the firſt-born from the womb of nature, he meets the morning of his reſurrection. He ariſes a conqueror from the grave; he returns with bleſſings from the world of ſpirits; he brings ſalvation to the ſons of men. Never did the returning ſun uſher in a day ſo glorious! it was the jubilee of the univerſe. The morning-ſtars ſung together, and all the ſons of God ſhouted aloud for joy; the Father of Mercies looked down from his throne in the heavens; with complacency he beheld his world reſtored; he ſaw his work that it was good. Then did the deſert rejoice; the face of nature was gladdened before him, when the bleſſings of the Eternal deſcended as the dew of heaven for the refreſhing of the nations.'

In this happy effort on a difficult topic it is with reluctance we object to the introduction of the poſſible or probable circumſtance of the moon ſhining on the armour of the guard. In an enumeration of the circumſtances and truths connected with the cardinal doctrine of Chriſtianity, nothing ſhould have been admitted which had not an immediate foundation in ſcripture record.

From the 2d ſermon we give the following extract, as an inſtance of animated reaſoning, and of good compoſition. The preacher is recommending to his hearers attendance upon public worſhip from the conſideration of the regard they owe to their brethren; the audience ſeems to have been compoſed of the higher ranks of life:

'Think of the condition of thoſe who are beneath you, your dependents, your brethren, to whoſe virtue and happineſs ſome regard is due. Think of the condition of your humbler brethren—toiling to procure a ſcanty ſubſiſtance, with hardly a ſufficient interval of repoſe to recruit their ſpirits for the renewal of their labours, they are left with minds uncultivated by education, to encounter the temptations of want and wretchedneſs, while no leiſure is afforded them to review their conduct, or to think of the purpoſe for which they are placed on the earth. From perſons thus circumſtanced what could we expect? how barren and deſolate would their minds be! how grovelling their views! how precarious their virtue! were it not for the regular return of thoſe inſtitutions of the goſpel by which they are raiſed to the knowledge of God and of their duty. To them is it not 'of the mercies of heaven' that a day is conſecrated in which they are permitted to repoſe from the cares of life, in which they are invited to approach the temple of the Lord, to pour out their ſouls before Him who made them, and to indulge their truſt in that gracious Providence, which careth for the happineſs of every creature that lives? Is it not 'of the mercies of heaven' that a day is conſecrated in which they are called upon, by men appointed to the taſk, 'to conſider the things that belong to their peace;' in which they are warned of the ſnares and temptations of life; in which they are inſtructed in the duties which God hath required of them, and ſolaced with

with the hopes which the gospel opens to sweeten their existence, and to animate their virtue?

'And will you, whom God hath blessed with so many other means of instruction and comfort, will you teach your less fortunate brethren to despise the most precious advantages of their condition? will you declare to them that there is no truth in the doctrines which religion reveals; that there is no obligation to the duties which it enjoins; that there is no reality in the consolations which it administers, consolations which are open alike to the rich and to the poor, and which can gladden the hearts of those who are strangers to every other joy? Such, however, is the language of your conduct, when you omit to assemble yourselves in the house of God.

'There may, indeed, be a secret respect for religion in the hearts of some, who mingle not in its outward institutions. But the ignorant, whom your behaviour must influence, are incapable of making the distinction; they regard your forsaking the sanctuary as a public declaration on your part that you have abandoned the religious character, and they are led, by their imitation of you, to renounce that faith in God which is the firmest guardian of their happiness and their virtue.

'Let me exhort you, then, to respect the institutions of the gospel, were it only for the sake of those to whom you cannot but acknowledge that they are necessary. Go before them in the path to heaven, and lead them, by the light of your example, to the fear and the love of that God on whom all alike depend. It is no unreasonable service in which we exhort you to mingle. If you were called, as in the days of pagan darkness, to bow before the shrines of imaginary deities, whose characters were stained by folly and vice, and whose praises were to be celebrated by a thousand idle ceremonies, in which reason and virtue might blush to share; if this were the worship in which we exhorted you to join, you might contemplate with horror the impious scene, and imagine that you were contributing to the best interests of your brethren while you were labouring to break the bands of a superstition so dishonourable to God, and so debasing to man.

'But it is a pure religion which is established in our land. It hath evidences of its truth which we trust will be sufficient to convince the candid; and it is the least that can be said of it, even by its enemies themselves, that it is a system adapted to the best principles of the human mind, neither tainted by any mixture of those gross superstitions which for so many ages prevailed in the earth, nor disgraced by those barbarous and unhallowed rites by which the blinded nations paid their homage to their gods. It prescribes a refined and rational worship, 'the worship of the understanding and the heart,' offered to one God, the creator of the world, through 'one Mediator between God and man.' It inculcates on its professors a pure morality, fitted to lead them to all that is excellent in conduct, and opens to them hopes that are congenial to their nature, and which every virtuous mind will rejoice to cherish. 'This is that true light which the nations desired to behold, and which the prophets saw from afar, and were glad.' Rejoice that on us who live

live in theſe latter days, the Sun of righteouſneſs himſelf hath ariſen; and labour, by maintaining a juſt reſpect for the inſtitutions of the goſpel, to diffuſe among your brethren the influence of a ſyſtem ſo worthy of God and ſo conſolatory to man.'

The 8th ſermon, on the reputation of the righteous, is beautifully chaſte in the language, and the matter is impreſſive. Were it only from the intereſt we take in the author, we wiſh that the funeral panegyric with which the ſermon concludes may be as juſt as it is elegant. The following paſſage will ſhew the author's manner:

'But if the righteous man has been called to act in a ſuperior ſtation, if he has been ſent by heaven, like an angel of mercy, to ſcatter bleſſings through a guilty land, to ſupport the glory of a falling conſtitution, to ſtrengthen the arm of juſtice, and to diffuſe her influence to the remoteſt corners of an empire, his reward will bear a proportion to the good he has performed. Appearing on a more conſpicuous ſtage, his actions are more expoſed to the obſervation of his brethren; the effects of his conduct extend to a greater diſtance; and a more numerous multitude is called to witneſs and approve his virtue. Though envy may ſometimes ſeek to blaſt his riſing glory, and rivals threaten to ſap the foundation of his greatneſs, yet integrity is his ſure defence, and the applauding voice of a nation is lifted up to deprecate his fall. Every heart takes an intereſt in his fortunes. To his declining years good men look forward as to a public calamity. If he ſicken, the ſkilful of the land attend his couch with filial ſolicitude; the anxious voice of inquiry is heard at his door; and the prayers of the faithful aſcend to heaven for his recovery. And when he falls his country mourns. Her ſorrowing nobles aſſemble in crowds to pay the laſt tender tribute to his memory; the poor bewail the loſs of their protector; and the widow and the orphan are ſeen weeping at his grave. But angels have bended from their thrones to receive their kindred ſpirit, to rejoice with him at the remembrance of the labours he has ſuſtained, and to welcome his arrival in the manſions of the juſt. His bleeding country, with a generous ardour, labours to perpetuate his worth. The tears of genius fall around his tomb. The faithful page of the hiſtorian records his fame, and the ſculptured marble tranſmits to poſterity the image of the dead. O! may it rouſe them to the imitation of his virtues; and, like the mantle of Elijah, convey to future patriots a portion of his ſpirit!'

The two ſermons upon alms have a conſiderable ſhare of originality. This is a quality ſo rare in ſermons that it muſt attract attention; and where it is the reſult of ſimplicity and genius, not the offspring of affectation and eccentricity, it muſt command applauſe. We find a very beaten ſubject placed in new lights; we obſerve our minds to be not only convinced by ſtrong argument of the importance and neceſſity of the duties recommended,

recommended, but our feelings quickened to that particular tone which makes us in love with our duty and the ſentiments of the author.

This effect of eloquence is produced chiefly by a ſelection of picturesque and tender ſentiments exhibited through the different parts of the ſubject in a manner apparently the moſt artleſs.

But while we feel the ſtrength and eloquence of this author, and applaud his production, we are at the ſame time prompted to diſſuade from an imitation of his writings. We think his ſtyle and manner not the beſt, even while they are his own; for, inſtead of being a happy vehicle for his ſentiments, the excellence of the latter is neceſſary to atone for the defects of the former. The author's ſtyle is the ſtyle of maxims, not of popular diſcourſes. To be particular and characteriſtic in ſermon illuſtration, without being too familiar, is a chief perfection in preaching: with a ſingular talent for this manner, our author ſeems at no pains to avoid its extreme.

In illuſtrating his ſubject we find him introducing with great complacency ſuch familiar names as Mr. Howard, Dr. Swift, Mr. Thomas Firmen, citizen of London, Francis de Sales, Richard Baxter, and Madame Maintenon, 'of virtuous memory.'

Subſcription to charity for promoting cleanlineſs might have been inculcated without the houſehold detail of *woollen cloth*, *flax*, and *ſoap*. Induſtry might have been ſuitably recommended to men of fortune without calling them 'idle gentlemen.' We give the following extract as affording a ſpecimen of the author's manner, and likewiſe as a proof of his acuteneſs and good ſenſe:

'Compaſſion, improperly cultivated, ſprings up into uſeleſs ſenſibility. The pleaſure which attends it ſoothes and deceives the heart. An intereſting account of human wretchedneſs excites pleaſurable ſympathetic emotions: the tongue utters kind wiſhes, 'Be ye clothed, be ye warmed;' and the heart exults in virtuous ſenſibility. But, to enter the dwelling of the wretched; to examine debts, and wants, and diſeaſes; to endure loathſome ſights and ſmells, within the ſphere of infection; to give time, and thought, and hands, and money—this is the ſubſtance, not the ſhadow of virtue; the pleaſure of ſenſibility may be leſs, but ſo is the danger of ſelf-conceit which attends it. Death-beds, in the page of an eloquent writer, delight the imagination; but they who are moſt delighted, are not the firſt to viſit a dying neighbour, and ſit up all night, and wipe off the cold ſweat, and moiſten the parched lip, and remove the phlegm, and give eaſy poſtures, and bear with peeviſhneſs, and ſuggeſt a pious thought, and conſole the parting ſpirit. They often encompaſs the altar of virtue, but not to ſacrifice.

'Extreme

'Extreme ſenſibility is a diſeaſed ſtate of the mind. It unfits us to relieve the miſerable, and tempts us to turn away. The ſight of pain is ſhunned, and the thought of it ſuppreſſed; the ear is ſtopped againſt the cry of indigence; the houſe of mourning is paſſed by; even near friends are abandoned, when ſick, to the nurſe and the phyſician, and when dead, to thoſe who mourn for a hire; and all this under pretence of fine feeling, and delicate ſenſibility, and a tender heart. The apples of Sodom are miſtaken for the fruit of paradiſe.'

The two ſermons on 'The Goſpel adapted to the State and Circumſtances of Man' appearing to us, from internal evidence, to be the production of a young man capable of improving in public compoſition, we ſhall be more particular in our remarks upon them, in hopes of being uſeful to the author.

Our conjecture of the author's youth ariſes from his ſtyle, which is fluent, unartificial, and exuberant; from the manner in which he has arranged his ſubject; from the heads of his diſcourſe, and from the opinion he has delivered concerning his ſubject: 'My ſubject is evidently important; it places the 'ſcheme of the goſpel not *perhaps* in a *new*, yet certainly in a 'moſt intereſting point of light.' Here we were ſurpriſed to find it a matter of doubt with the author whether he had not been the firſt who had pointed out divine revelation as happily adapted to the ſtate and circumſtances of man. Had we been called upon to mention a ſubject in preaching which has been more frequently and more fully handled than others, we ſhould very probably have mentioned this view of revelation. Nor is this to be wondered at, for, without a full conviction on this point, there can be no belief in the goſpel, nor any truſt or confidence in the wiſdom and goodneſs of the God of Chriſtians. Yet the manner in which the author has arranged his ſubject and expreſſed himſelf, would lead us to conclude that to him *this view* of the goſpel was not familiar. From the concurrence of ſo many writers in adopting the ſame plan, and the ſame manner of ſtating it, we were led to think that, upon the ſubject of revelation, there is but one right and obvious arrangement; our author's departure (in form though not in ſubſtance) from this arrangement, appears to us complex and inaccurate, carrying upon the face of it an air of wordy oſtentation. Mr. Kemp means to ſhew,

'Firſt, That man, although endued with the capacity of receiving information, yet by his own unaſſiſted efforts, is totally unable to acquire the knowledge of thoſe truths with which it chiefly imports him to be acquainted.

'Secondly, That, upon his being enlightened with the true knowledge of God and of his duty, he muſt neceſſarily be impreſſed with a deep ſenſe of his own depravity and guilt.

'Thirdly,

'Thirdly, That he has a conſciouſneſs of moral obligation, and ideas of moral excellence, which experience tells him he cannot by his own efforts fulfil and realiſe.

'Fourthly, That he is ſubject to many afflictions, for which, upon the principles of reaſon, he cannot account, nor diſcover to what good purpoſe they tend.

'Laſtly, That although he feels both preſages of, and deſires after, a future ſtate of being, yet, from the light of nature, he neither derives aſſurance of its exiſtence, nor any certain information concerning it.'

The uſual method, however, is to ſhow that the goſpel is adapted to the circumſtances of mankind, 1ſt, As they are ignorant; 2dly, As they are guilty; and, 3dly, As they are weak. Now, not to mention the inconvenient length of each of our author's heads, nor the inaccurate manner in which ſome of them are expreſſed, the other mode, more ſimple, naturally includes the illuſtration of all that is propoſed. Accordingly we find that the author has, under his diviſions, introduced the ſame ſentiment, and alſo the ſame method of illuſtrating it, which we find generally adopted. He ſhews the deficiency of heatheniſm and unaſſiſted human nature reſpecting the object under diſcuſſion, and, winding up his argument, points out the light diſcloſed by the goſpel on that particular topic. The diſcuſſions themſelves, and the manner of the preacher in his 2d and 3d heads, are exactly what are common under the 2d, Guilt, and 3d, Weakneſs. But what he brings under a fifth head is in fact a part of the firſt, as men's darkneſs concerning immortality is an eſſential portion of that ignorance which there comes under review. The fourth head alſo is not a proper diviſion. The conſolations of the goſpel reſult from it in the joint view of its being accommodated to weakneſs, ignorance, and guilt; yet to a review of his ſubject placed in this aſpect we would not willingly object; and indeed many of the uſual illuſtrations of the ſubject are here touched upon, if not with energy yet with clearneſs.

Thoſe that have been omitted are 'the advantages of the goſpel, not only in conveying poſitive truths and light (which are ſtated), but in delivering us from that maſs of error with which the light and truths derived from unaſſiſted reaſon were nearly overwhelmed, and from which it had been found impoſſible to ſeparate them. The light derived from the example of Jeſus in removing our ignorance; and the means by which we procure the aids of the Divine Spirit, are an eſſential diſcovery of the goſpel not recogniſed by our author. The ordinances alſo, and the preaching of the word, as adapted to the ſtate and circumſtances of man, are all of them unnoticed.

Ingenious

Ingenious men who have ſet themſelves the taſk of paraphraſing portions of ſcripture indiſcriminately, have not been able to eſcape ridicule when in plain paſſages they have laboured a paraphraſe with no earthly effect but to darken counſel with words. But in the argumentative part of a diſcourſe, when the preacher has ſubjoined in proof a very clear paſſage of holy writ, to detain us with a long paraphraſe upon *this* paſſage, is a more ſingular abuſe of time. An inſtance of this fault we find in pages 255 and 6 of our author.

Inſtances of inaccurate and redundant language in Mr. Kemp might be mentioned. 'A conſciouſneſs (ſee head 3d) of, &c. 'which he cannot fulfil and *realiſe*.' The Carteſians held conſciouſneſs to be the only reality which we have. We do not ſuppoſe our author intends to impugn this ſyſtem, but means only to expreſs this plain and familiar truth, which we think he has done obſcurely, viz. That there is in the human mind a ſtandard of virtue and duty, which in practice we can never reach——'*they* tend,' (ſee head 4). In this ill-conſtructed ſentence we are to underſtand *that man cannot diſcover any good purpoſe to which the principles of reaſon tend*; principles being the neareſt antecedent to *they*; but this is not the meaning of the author—'the dark benighted world'—'the field or page of controverſy'—'the clear and conſiſtent, grand and ſublime conſolations of the goſpel'—'grand and capital doctrines'—'the moſt flagitious enormities,' *i. e.* the moſt wicked wickedneſs—'the moſt undaunted fortitude.'—'There is nothing,' ſays the author, 'in the circumſtances of man that can *vindicate* the rejection of this precious doctrine.' This is proper language. But when he mentions 'a perſon whoſe extenſive knowledge and deep ſenſe of religion *vindicated* a correſponding practice,' we are reminded of the anecdote of Lord Cheſterfield's orator, who, upon hearing it aſſerted that the conduct of a certain perſon made him liable to the cenſure of the houſe, replied that he was of a contrary opinion, and thought that the gentleman's conduct made him *liable* to the praiſe and thanks of his country.

The 14th ſermon, on the revolution, is a ſpirited popular addreſs, well adapted to the end for which it is preached. The author diſcovers an accurate knowledge of the hiſtory of his country, and his ſentiments are a pleaſing union of ardour for freedom and native rights, with loyalty, love of order, and good magiſtrates.

Of the plain ſermons written on the ſimilar ſubjects of ſearching the ſcriptures and ſtudying the ſcriptures, we prefer the former.

Upon a general view of the volume before us, juſtice requires that we recommend it as containing ſeveral excellent diſcourſes,

courſes, and which will be found of particular uſe from the variety of manner in the different writers. We confeſs, however, that, from the ſituation of the writers, we were led to expect more efforts, in the way of impaſſioned eloquence, than we have found. This, in part, is no doubt owing to the rareneſs of talents for ſo high a walk of compoſition, and in part, perhaps, to the example which the leading writers of our church have ſet, in whoſe writings little of this quality is to be found; and that little, although from thoſe evidently capable of attaining ſucceſs, ſeems rather the effect of accident than of intention. It is ſaid of the French tragedians that they are afraid of being too tragical; and it is equally true of the Engliſh divines that they ſeem afraid of being eloquent. A prejudice againſt ſpecimens of this kind of writing ſtill appears to prevail in this country *.

We wiſhed to find more of the diſcourſes in this volume turning upon living manners and characteriſtic preaching. Theſe are the chief deſiderata in preaching. We are ſenſible of the difficulties to be encountered here; but it ſhould be remembered that in this field there is more fame to be acquired than in any other; and perhaps the ſcarcity of labourers in it may be owing more to inattention and want of early direction to the importance of the object, than to want of abilities for the taſk. In this view, it is with pleaſure we recommend to the peruſal of all who have lately entered, or are about to enter into holy orders, the eleventh ſermon of the volume before us, upon the end of preaching, and the way to attain it. The importance and ſuperior excellence of characteriſtic preaching are there ſet forth; and we join in ſentiment with the author reſpecting the utility of recurring frequently to particular views and perſonal delineations; and in ſhort to making what he properly calls characteriſtic preaching a chief endeavour. Yet we are of opinion that he has not done full juſtice to the views he has taken up; at leaſt that his illuſtrations are not immediately obvious; for he requires a ſecond and a third reading

* It was lately aſked in a company of divines, at one of our univerſities, in what manner the biſhop had preached the charity ſermon? It was anſwered, that his diſcourſe appeared ſenſible, but conveyed in a manner that was flat and unengaging. What! replied the queriſt with ſome marks of contempt, would you have had a biſhop attempt to make you cry? As if it were univerſally confeſſed that all aid from the paſſions to bring us to a ſenſe of our duty ought to be carefully rejected.

before

before we can follow him. Too little indulgence also is shewn to other modes of public teaching. To what size must we reduce the great mass of modern divinity, if we retain no more than falls within the author's plan? We nevertheless acquiesce in his observations upon a pulpit style.

The peculiar idioms and phrases of our northern neighbours, are gradually disappearing. Of these we have found here less than we expected; and while, in the graver subjects of philosophy, history, and sermons, they are setting a distinguished example of parts and judgment, they seem no less ready to excel in the purity of their diction. But in the lighter walks of composition it is found they are not so happy. It has long been remarked that the Scotch are deficient in works of humour. To account for this, natural and local causes have been assigned. But if we may judge from our intercourse with many individuals of that country, the Scotch are not deficient in humour; and perhaps their difficulties in the language will alone account for their having produced few works of humour, which, beyond any other, require facility of expression, and an intimacy with the language employed. Their modes of expression in conversation, as well as their accent, are still different from the conversation of their English neighbours.

ART. III. *Archæologia; or, Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity. Published by the Society of Antiquaries of London. Vol. VIII.* 4to. 1l. 1s. White. London, 1787.

[*Continued.*]

'XIV. *Account of the Discoveries in digging a Sewer in Lombard-Street and Birchin-Lane, 1786. In a Letter to Mr. Gough.*'

'IN the interval between those houses, in Lombard-Street, 'which are numbered from 82 to 85; at the depth of about 'nine feet from the surface, a *pavement* was found composed of '*small rough stones*;' the paving of a back-court, we suppose. 'And about *three* feet below this, that is, about *twelve* feet 'from the surface, *another pavement* was discovered of the kind 'usually supposed to be Roman, and *composed of small irregular* '*bricks; most of them red, but some few black, and some white*;' a tessellated pavement, and the flooring of some Roman parlour, that had been afterwards buried, covered with three feet of earth, and then paved as a back-court. 'Though they were of irregular form, they did not differ much in size; being in length

'about two inches, and in breadth about one inch and an half. 'They were roughly cemented with a yellowish mortar, and 'were laid in a thick bed of coarse mortar and stones.' This confirms them to have been a tessellated pavement. This pavement 'from west to east—extended about twenty feet.' But '*near* this pavement *eastward*, on the *north* side, parallel with 'the side of the sewer, stood a *wall* composed *of the smaller-* '*sized Roman brick*, about *ten* feet *high* and *eighteen* feet *long*; in 'which were *two flues* near each other, one *semicircular*, the 'other *rectangular and oblong*: the top of this wall was about '*ten* feet below the surface of the street.' This was another house built in the Roman fashion. The *flues*, as they were called, appear in p. 127 to have been 'perpendicular,' and were therefore *very like our present chimnies*; being air-holes to the shallow room under the flooring, in which a fire was lighted for warming the room above. And from the depth of the wall below, we may be sure there was a cellar under both.

'Near the post-office, on the north side of the sewer, about 'fourteen feet under the surface, was found a wall of the usual 'Roman structure. From the top for about two feet down, 'was rough work, and then regular layers of flat bricks at 'smaller intervals;' the common wall of the house, and the sides of the *hypocaust* below. '*Near* this wall, but not more '~~than *nine* feet below the surface, was a pavement of flat tiles.~~' This was at the same depth as the pavement of the back-court before, and served for the flooring of some outhouse.

These concur to shew the rise, which has been given to the ground of London, as well as of Rome, and which has taken off considerably from the height of the hills of both. Then follows a list of articles found, and five plates of the articles accompany it. And next comes an account of the *coins* found.

XV. *Account of the Discoveries before mentioned,—from Mr.* '*John Jackson, of Clement's-Lane.*'

This confirms the preceding account. The tessellated pavements above are thus described. 'This pavement, as well as 'most of the rest, was laid on *three distinct beds of mortar*; the 'lowest very coarse, about three inches thick at a medium, and 'mixed with large pebbles; over this is fine mortar, very hard, 'and of a reddish colour, being mixed with powdered brick. 'This is about one inch thick, and on it the bricks are laid in 'a very fine white cement.' It also improves on the account before. 'Opposite Abchurch-Lane, there appeared two walls 'of unhewn stone, their direction *across* the street, at the dis- 'tance of about eight or ten feet from each other; *between them*

'was

'was much *black wood*, apparently burnt; and indeed *many things* 'dug up *hereabouts*, discovered *plain marks of conflagration*.' This shews a street to have run in the direction of Lombard-Street, during the early period of the Romans. And the burnt wood, &c. is the evident relic of one of the many fires, from which London has suffered.

'In many parts of Lombard-Street and Birchin-Lane (which 'was afterwards opened), a *very large quantity* of *oyster-shells* was 'found *at the same depth as the pavements*, &c. with a few *muscle-'shells*; both *of the common English kinds*,' and both the remains of our muscles and our oysters eaten by the Romans. Between the houses No. 21 'and No. 22, another pavement was met 'with of the common sort; and by this there were *fragments* of '*plaister walls, painted red, with a black border*.' But 'when 'the workmen proceeded up Birchin-Lane, they found—a fine 'tessellated pavement of very small bricks and stones, nearly 'opposite No. 12. Of this only *a corner* appeared, which is 'composed of black, red, green, and white stones and brick, '*forming a beautiful border*. It seems by the men's description, 'that this pavement *runs under the footway and the houses there-'abouts*, if not destroyed when they were built.' And 'both 'in Lombard-Street and Birchin-Lane there were found, great 'quantities of Roman earthen ware, but chiefly fragments; 'coins of gold, silver, and copper, of Claudius, Nero, Galbus, 'and other emperors down to Constantine; several handles and 'fragments of glass urns, bottles, &c.; Roman keys, horns and 'bones of different animals: and, *in the upper part of the soil*, 'Nuremberg counters, coins of Queen Elizabeth, and other 'relics of modern times:—no remains of Saxon antiquity hav-'ing been found, that could be ascertained to be such.'

The whole of these discoveries is very judiciously summed up thus: 'A large trench,' says John Henniker, Esq. F.R.A.S. in a letter, 'has been excavated [*it should be*, dug] in Lombard-'Street for the first time since the memory of man, which is 'sunk about *sixteen* feet deep. The soil is *almost uniformly* di-'vided into *four* strata: the *uppermost*, *thirteen feet six inches* 'thick, of *factitious* earth; the *second*, *two* feet thick, of *brick*, 'apparently the ruins of buildings; the *third*, *three* inches thick, 'of *wood-ashes*, apparently the remains of a town built of wood 'and destroyed by fire; the *fourth*, of Roman pavement, com-'mon and tessellated. On this pavement the coin in question,' a gold one of Galba, 'was discovered; together with several 'other coins, and many articles of pottery. *Below the pavement 'the workmen find virgin earth*.'

This essay is accompanied with two plates of vessels and coins found.

'XVI. *Observations on a Picture by Zuccaro, from Lord Falkland's Collection. By the Hon. Daines Barrington.*'

This picture, 'according to tradition in the family,—represented Lord Burleigh playing at cards with three other persons, who from their dress appear to be of distinction.' But 'the cards are marked as at present; and differ from those of more modern times, only by being narrower and longer.' And 'there are also considerable heaps of gold and silver on the table; so that these dignified personages seem to have played, for what would not at present be called a *chicken* stake.' Mr. Barrington thinks 'the game a Spanish one, called Rimero.' This probably, he says, 'might have been introduced by Philip the Second or some of his *suite*' [an affected word for *train*] 'while he was in England.' He shews it to have been 'much in vogue, during the reign of Queen Elizabeth; from this passage in Shakespeare,

I left him at *Primero*
With the Duke of Suffolk.

He then shews from Duchat's notes on the 22d chapter of the 1st book of Rabelais, how Primero was played, and how the picture suits the account. And he adds that our word *flush*, 'which, when applied to cards, imports that they are all of the same colour,' and which is used at Primero as well as other games, is only 'the Spanish term *flux*' of the same import; as 'x in that language—hath the power of *sh*, or nearly so.'

'XVII. *Observations on the Antiquity of Card-playing in England. By the Hon. Daines Barrington.*'

In this pleasing account, Mr. Barrington finds the first intimation concerning the use of cards in *France*, under 1426; when no person was permitted to have in his house, 'tabliers, eschiquiers, *quartes*,' &c. tables, chequers, or *cards*; and under 1404, when, in 'a synod held at Langres,—the clergy are forbid the use 'of *cards*.' These two facts, however, we beg leave to observe, prove decisively the *much earlier* introduction of cards. What was expressly interdicted by a law, must have become very extensive in its practice. What was specifically forbidden to the clergy, must have been common among the laity. And what was thus common and extensive at the beginning of the fifteenth century, could not but have been long known. This observation carries us back to the evidence in Menustrier, which Mr. Barrington too hastily rejects; of *three packs of cards*, 'trois jeux 'de

'de cartes,' being made for Charles the Sixth; and even to the earlier evidence in Anstis's History of the Garter, of Edward the First playing at cards, 'ad quatuor reges,' in 1278.

'It seems, however, a strong presumption against Mr. Anstis's 'explanation of the game *ad quatuor reges*,' adds Mr. Barrington, '—that cards are not alluded to by such an article in the 'wardrobe rolls; because *we hear nothing about them*, either in 'Rymer's Fœdera or our Statute-book, till towards the *latter* 'end of the reign of Henry VIII.' But Mr. Barrington has strangely forgotten, what he has said in the very page preceding, that he has lately had 'the perusal of Henry the *Seventh*'s pri-'vate expences, by which it appears that money was issued at 'three several times for his losses at *cards*.' And, as he ingenuously subjoins in a note to the *former* remark, 'whilst I am 'correcting this page for the press, Mr. Nichols (printer to the 'society) hath referred me to 4 Edw. IV. Rot. Parl. Membr. 'VI; where *pleyinge cardes* are enumerated amongst several 'other articles, *which are not to be imported*.' All unites to shew the introduction of card-playing in this country, and in France, to be much earlier than Mr. Barrington has stated it to be. In the 4th of Edw. IV. we *began to make them ourselves*, and therefore forbad them to be imported. And, as Mr. Barrington inconsistently remarks in the *text* immediately afterwards, the daughter of our Henry VII. being married in 1502 to James IV. of Scotland, 'she played at cards soon after her arrival at Edin-'burgh.' Mr. Barrington even subjoins with still greater inconsistency in another note, that 'Dr. Woide refers me to a 'German publication by Mr. Breitloff, in which he *cites an au-'thority*, that *cards were used in Germany so early as A. D.* 1300.' Mr. Barrington has plainly taken up his pen to write, before he had digested his intelligence. And *this*, as he very ingenuously *betrays* it at times, stands in direct opposition to his conclusions.

Mr. Barrington then proceeds with more steadiness, to point out the Spaniards as 'the first inventors of cards.' To the Spaniards, 'we owe—undoubtedly the game of *ombre* (with its 'imitations of quadrille, &c.);' the name and the terms being 'all Spanish.' Another evidence arises, he thinks, from 'the four 'suits' being 'named from what is chiefly represented upon 'them, viz. *spades* from *spada* a sword;' when the *spade* of our cards is no more like a sword than it is an *elephant* or a *vessel*, and when, if the names should be derived from the king of spades carrying a sword in his hands, the name should equally be communicated to the king of *clubs*, as he equally carries a sword, and just the same kind of sword too; 'hearts are called *oros*, from 'a piece of money being on each card,' when a real heart is

impreſſed upon our cards; 'clubs, *baſtos*, from a ſtick or club,' though the *club* of our cards is juſt as like a ſtick, as the *ſpade* of them is like a ſword; 'and *diamonds*, *copas*, from the cups painted 'on them,' when the *figure* upon our cards is ſo unlike a cup, and the *name* is ſo compleatly Engliſh. Mr. Barrington, therefore, has failed egregiouſly in this, his ſecond argument. His other arguments alſo militate againſt himſelf. 'The Spaniſh 'packs conſiſt but of forty-eight, having no ten;' while ours have a ten, and are fifty-two. 'The next in degree' to the king 'is a perſon on horſeback named *El Caballo*,' or the *horſeman*, in the room of our *queen*. 'The third (or knave with us),' who ſo properly graſps an halberd, as a *ſerviens* or *ſerjeant* attending the king and queen, and is therefore ſo properly diſtinguiſhed among us in the language of our *elder* fathers, by the appellation of *knave* or ſervant, 'is termed *ſoto* or footman' in Spaniſh. And we cannot but think, that Mr. Barrington's reaſoning for the Spaniſh derivation of our cards flies directly in his face; and that our cards appear from the real *heart* and the real *knave* upon them, to be (in part at leaſt) genuine Engliſh. Theſe circumſtances unite with the record of Edw. IIſt, to prove cards very ancient among us. Even 'the amuſement had become ſo ge-'neral, in the reign of King James' the Firſt, 'that *the au-'dience at the playhouſes* uſed thus to divert themſelves, before the 'play began *.'

Mr. Barrington however perſeveres, and produces 'a ſtill 'more deciſive proof' of the Spaniſh derivation of our cards. It is what was 'undoubtedly the cover of a pack of cards, and 'probably was made uſe of by a French card-maker.' It has theſe words, partly Spaniſh and partly French, upon it, *Cartes finnes (ſuperfine cards)* are Spaniſh, which are followed by two of 'French, (viz. *faictes par*, or *made by*),' and are ſucceeded by '*Je* [for *Jean*] *Hauvola*,' a Spaniſh name (*we* ſuppoſe, for Mr. Barrington notes it not) Frenchified in the perſonal part of it, and by '*y*,—generally uſed in Spaniſh for the conjunction '*and*,' and by 'Edward Warman,' an Engliſh name 'inſerted 'in a new piece of wood laid into the original block.' Nor is this all. 'At each corner are the figures from which the four 'ſuits of cards are denominated in Spain, viz. cups,' a real cup, and totally diſſimilar to our diamond, 'ſwords,' a real ſword, and equally unlike our ſpade, 'clubs,' a real club, and as different from *our* club as Mr. Barrington is *from Hercules*, 'and pieces 'of money,' a real piece, quite round, and no more like to an

* P. 141 from Mr. Malone's Supplemental Obſervations on Shakeſpeare, p. 31.

heart

heart than he is to *Hyperion*; 'whilſt at the top, and at the ſide, 'are the arms of Caſtile and Leon.' All this 'deciſive proof' proves nothing. It ſhews not the Spaniards, to have been the *inventors* of cards. It ſhews them only, to have been in repute at the time, for *making ſuperfine cards*. Accordingly one Juan Hauvola, borrowing a little French, and retaining his old Spaniſh, ſet up at Paris for making them, in partnerſhip with ſome French houſe; and afterwards engaged with an Engliſh houſe, in London. And the *ſuperfine* cards uſed in England might well be Spaniſh, and imported by a Spaniſh manufacturer at Paris, in concert with an Engliſh ſhop-keeper at London; when, as Mr. Barrington himſelf has ſhewn, the Spaniſh game of Primero was played at court.

On the whole, however, we think a *preſent* pack of Engliſh cards to be partly Engliſh and partly Spaniſh. The club actually impreſſed upon this Spaniſh cover, a real club, having three ſtrong knots at the ſide, and ending in a thick and heavy head; ſhews the cypher on the Spaniſh and Engliſh card to have been originally a club, though it is now ſo different; and to have *therefore* been called *baſto* in Spaniſh, and *club* in Engliſh. The ſword alſo on the cover, a real one, with a handle, a guard, and a double edge, ſhews the card to have alſo had a ſword originally, though it has now ſomething ſo diſſimilar. And the retention of the *names* among us, when the *figures* have diſappeared from our cards; and the particular retention of the *Spaniſh* name, for *one* of them; clearly point out ſomething like a Spaniſh origin, for two *ſuits* in our cards. But then the impreſſion and the appellation of *hearts* for another, ſo diſtinct from the Spaniſh *oros* and the Spaniſh *pieces of money*, ſhew *this* ſuit to be Engliſh. The *diamond* too, a diamond ſhaped in a lozenge form, proves the ſame. And the *tens* in the Engliſh, the *queen* in the room of the horſeman, and perhaps the *knave*, again unite to mark the Engliſh portion of our cards. Ours, therefore, were originally the diamonds and the hearts, and the Spaniſh were the ſpades and the clubs. Yet, as the knave is nearly ſimilar in both, and the king is actually the ſame; and as the Spaniards have *four ſuits*, and *three court* cards, as well as we; this ſtriking coincidence in practice, muſt neceſſarily have ariſen from ſome inter-communion of ideas, that can be referred only to one origin for all. And ſince 'ombre,' the name of a Spaniſh game, 'ſignifies a 'man *,' *homo* forming *ombre*, as *numerus number*, *camera chamber*, &c.; ſince *ſpade*, the Spaniſh *eſpada* for a ſword, is only the Latin *ſpatha* pronounced hard, as *th* in our Thames and in the French

* P. 138.

Bibliotheque at present; since 'the terms for the principal cards' at ombre 'are also Spanish, viz. spadill, manill, basto, punto, 'matadors *,' and are also derived from the Latin *spathula*, *manuale batuo* to beat with *basto* or a club, *punctum*, and perhaps *metadoron* a Greek word Latinized, for the *superdonation* given to the holder of matadors; since we must derive 'being codilled 'from *codillo*, the winning of the pool from *polla*, which signifies the stake, the term of *trumps*,' spelt formerly *triumph* in English, 'from *triompho*, as also the term of the *ace*, which pervades most 'European languages,' from 'the Spanish word for this card, '*as* †,' all words evidently Latin in their origin, as *triumphus*, *pollubrum* the *bason* that holds the stake, and *codicillus*, and the word *as*, or *ace*, pervading *most European languages*; since 'the 'Venetians still use the Spanish cards, retaining the Spanish 'terms, except that of *oros*, which they render *denari*, signi-'fying equally pieces of money ‡,' and equally signifying so in the Latin only; and since 'cards were used in Germany so early 'as A. D. 1300,' appear so early as 1278 in England, under the title of 'the game of the four kings,' and about 1392 are denominated in France by the express title of 'cards' and 'packs of 'cards;' we scruple not to refer them to those from whom the very appellation of *chartæ*, *cards*, or leaves of paste-boards, is derived, those common fathers of language and of usages, to the Italians, the Southern Germans, the French, the English, and the Spaniards; the antient Romans themselves. From them the nations of western Europe derived them, we apprehend, varied the names and the figures, according to their several fancies; but still retain enough of their original similarity, to point out their common origin; and, whether Spanish, Italian, French, or English, are all Roman in their commencement.

'XVIII. *Observations on Card-playing. By the Rev. Mr. Bowle.*'

The design of this dissertation, is to confirm that Spanish origin of cards, which we think we have refuted before. Nor does it prove more in itself, than that many of our games in the reign of Elizabeth were Spanish. And it shews the modern *vingt-un*, to be the same with the Spanish *bientuin*: though we derived it undoubtedly from the French, and though it hence appears common to both.

[*To be continued.*]

* P. 138. † Ibid. ‡ Ibid.

ART.

ART. IV. *The Art of dying Wool, Silk, and Cotton. Tranſlated from the French of M. Helot, M. Macquer, and M. Le Pileur D'Apligny. Illuſtrated with Copper-plate Cuts exhibiting the Inſide of a Dye-Houſe; and the various Implements uſed in the Practice of dying.* 8vo. 6s. 6d. boards. Baldwin. London, 1789.

IN a country where a great part of the exports is manufactured from wool, ſilk, and cotton, the art of dying theſe materials is a matter of no ſmall importance to the ſtate. In this light has the ſubject been for many years conſidered in France, throughout which kingdom the dyers are ſubject to certain regulations, and frequent inſpection by the government. The dyers of the *true* and of the *falſe* dye, are there diſtinct occupations, and ſome of their beſt chemiſts have been employed in experiments, partly deſigned to diſtinguiſh preciſely the true from the falſe dye, but ſtill with the general intention of improving the art. A circumſtantial detail of thoſe experiments, with their various reſults, is the object of the preſent volume, which has been tranſlated for the uſe, and merits greatly the attention, of the Engliſh dyers. In fact, though an illiterate dyer may accidentally ſtumble on an uſeful improvement, the art of dying will never attain the perfection of which it is capable, until thoſe who profeſs it ſhall make themſelves acquainted with the chemical theory on which its operations are founded.

The work begins with ſome account of the primitive colours, or rather of thoſe which are ſo denominated by the dyers; for they have no affinity with the colours properly termed primitive by Sir Iſaac Newton. The dyers have only given them this name becauſe, from the nature of the ingredients by which they are produced, they become the baſis of every other colour. Thoſe primitive colours are five, viz. blue, red, yellow, fawn or root-colour, and black; each of which furniſhes a great number of ſhades, whence, by combination, are produced all the colours in nature. Next follows a deſcription of the veſſels and utenſils uſed in dying, and an account of the true colours, or thoſe technically denominated *in grain*.

The following extract preſents us with a philoſophical view of the principles on which the difference of colours is ſuppoſed to depend:

'I have learnt, from experiment, the beſt guide in philoſophy, as well as in the arts, that the difference of colours, according to the preceding diſtinction, depends partly on the preparation of the ſubject to be dyed, and partly upon the colouring materials. Hence I am of opinion that it may be received as a general principle, of the art in queſtion, that the inviſible mechaniſm of dying conſiſts in dilating

dilating the pores of the body you mean to dye; to depoſit in them the particles of a foreign ſubſtance; to confine them by ſome kind of cement, ſo that neither rain nor ſun can poſſibly alter them; to chooſe the colouring particles of ſuch a tenuity as to penetrate and be retained, by being ſufficiently wedged into the pores of the ſubject when dilated by the heat of boiling water, and afterwards contracted by cold, and finally covered with a kind of maſtick, left by the ſalt uſed in preparation. Whence it follows that the pores of the fibres of the woollen, either fabricated or to be fabricated into ſtuffs, ought to be cleanſed, expanded, cemented, or glued, and then contracted, that the colour-atoms may be retained or faſtened, as it were, like a diamond in the beazel, or collet of a ring.

'From repeated experiments I am alſo taught that every ingredient for dying in grain has, in ſome degree, an aſtringent and precipitating quality; that this quality is ſufficient to ſeparate the earth of alum, one of the ſalts uſed in the preparation of wool before it be dyed, and that this earth, mixed with the colouring atoms, forms a kind of lacker, ſomething like what painters uſe, but infinitely finer; that in bright colours, ſuch as ſcarlet, where alum cannot be uſed, it is neceſſary to ſubſtitute for this earth, which is always white, when the alum is good, ſome other body that may ſupply the colouring atoms with a baſis equally white; that tin gives this baſis in the ſcarlet dye; that when all theſe minute atoms of the colouring earthy lacker, are diſtributed through the pores of the dilated ſubject; the gluten which the tartar (another ſalt uſed in the preparation) depoſites, ſerves to cement theſe atoms; and finally, that the contraction of the pores, occaſioned by the cold, confines them.

'Probably the falſe colours are defective only becauſe the ſubject is not ſufficiently prepared; and the colouring particles being depoſited only on the ſmooth ſurface, or in pores not enough dilated for their reception, the leaſt accident muſt inevitably detach them. If a method of ſupplying colouring parts of dying woods with the neceſſary aſtringency could be diſcovered, and at the ſame time the wool properly prepared, as it is prepared to receive the red of madder, I am convinced, from at leaſt thirty experiments, that theſe woods might be rendered as uſeful to dyers in grain, as they have hitherto been to the ſecond claſs of dyers.'

The art of dying wool in various colours is treated at great length, conſiſting of thirty-nine chapters, excluſive of ſome important inſtructions; that of dying ſilk is detailed in more than a third of the ſame quantity; and of cotton in almoſt as much. Theſe ſubſtances being of a different texture, and their pores alſo different as well in ſize as in form, muſt neceſſarily be different in their aptitude for receiving and retaining the colouring particles. Wool is compoſed of an infinite number of fibres, which, like hairs, are only tubes containing a medullary ſubſtance. Theſe tubes are themſelves ſieves throughout their length, with an infinity of lateral pores; and they are more or leſs curled in proportion to the greater or leſs quantity of thoſe pores.

pores. The fibres of wool having thus many pores, afford great room for extraneous ſubſtances, which may not only be lodged in the exterior pores, but even penetrate into the whole extent of the tubes, after the medullary ſubſtance has been expelled. It is therefore not to be wondered at if wool, being of all ſubſtances that are made into ſtuffs the moſt porous, ſhould be the moſt eaſy to dye, and imbibe the greateſt quantity of colour.

Silk is a glutinous matter, formed in the body of the worm, and which hardens in the air while the animal is ſpinning. This liquor doubtleſs originally proceeds from the mucilage of the mulberry-leaf, which, in the body of the worm, by its combination with the volatile alkali, becomes an animal gluten. It afterwards acquires conſiſtence in the air, in conſequence of the evaporation of a thin oil, and a part of this volatile alkali.

Cotton is a thready ſubſtance, enveloping the grain of the cotton-tree. It is not formed, as ſome imagine, by the extravaſation of the nouriſhing juice of the plant; for, were it ſo, it would vary both in ſize and form. It is truly a vegetation produced on the outſide of the plant; and as no vegetable ſubſtance can receive a juice without having veſſels proper for its circulation, it neceſſarily follows that the fibres of the cotton are tubular, in the ſame manner as the wool; but being a great deal finer, muſt be more difficult to dye, becauſe incapable of admitting ſuch groſs particles. It has alſo lateral pores, like thoſe of wool, containing a kind of medullary oil, which muſt neceſſarily be expelled previous to dying; otherwiſe the dye would be extremely ſuperficial.

We have ſubjoined this general account of thoſe different ſubſtances, with the view of explaining to our readers the principles on which the art of dying is founded. Our limits will not permit of deſcribing the proceſs in any of the different operations; but we can recommend the preſent work as an excellent introduction to the ſcientific knowledge of the art of dying. It exhibits, we believe, a faithful diſplay of the practice in France, where great chemical abilities have been exerted towards the improvement of the art; and muſt therefore afford much uſeful information to thoſe who would derive advantage in the proſecution of it from the aſſiſtance of a rational theory.

ART.

ART. V. *The History and Antiquities of the Town and County of the Town of Newcastle upon Tyne; including an Account of the Coal-trade of that Place, and embellished with engraved Views of the Public Buildings, &c. By John Brand, M. A. Fellow and Secretary of the Society of Antiquaries.* 4to. 2 vols. 2l. 2s. boards. White. London, 1789.

THAT 'a great book is a great evil,' is a trite observation, but was never more aptly exemplified than by the modern writers of topographical histories. The indefatigable Maitland had a genius particularly calculated for this species of inquiry; and he chose for the purpose such subjects as would afford the most ample scope to his laborious investigation; but his literary successors, less fortunate in their selection, while they have endeavoured to imitate the industry, have far exceeded the minuteness of that inquisitive author; and instead of interesting details, and researches gratifying to curiosity, present us with an enormous mass of trifling facts and circumstances, and a register of names which ought to have remained unmolested in their native obscurity. The principal cause of the extreme amplification of these writers is doubtless a partiality for their subject, to which having themselves annexed an idea of importance, they seem to imagine that the most circumstantial account of it cannot fail of contributing, in a proportionable degree, to the gratification of the public. But in this they are greatly mistaken. The public will never look with complacency at a work, however laboriously executed, which neither engages the attention with interesting narrative, nor repays it with useful information. To delineate the origin and progress of eminent places; to trace the various natural or political causes of their advancement or decline; and to recite the extraordinary events which occur in their history; these are objects which will, in general, afford both pleasure and instruction; but to answer these ends, the inquiry must be prosecuted with the appearance of judgment, and the reader must not, through the indiscriminating zeal of his author, be overwhelmed in the rubbish of antiquity.

We have been led into these thoughts by the huge and undigested volumes now before us; in which we can hardly perceive any glimmering of useful investigation; but where, on the contrary, our patience is exhausted with the most frivolous details; and curiosity, instead of being gratified, meets in every step with disappointment.

The author begins with an account of the fortifications and various buildings at Newcastle; informing us that the town

was

was enclosed with a wall during the reign of William Rufus. We learn likewise that, after the completion of this structure, the town was divided into twenty-four wards, according to the number of the gates, and the round towers with which they were accompanied; and that these were defended, in times of hostility with the Scots, by the particular wards originally appropriated to them. The account of the buildings, their various repairs and additions, with the names of the persons concerned, a detail of epitaphs, &c. occupy the whole of the first volume, which is furnished with a copious appendix.

The second volume commences with an account of the river Tyne. The author observes that no literary monuments have been transmitted to inform us with certainty by what name this river was distinguished while the Roman legions were stationed on its banks. It occurs not as a river of Northumberland in Ptolemy's ancient map of Britain; if it was not then called the Vedra, which is the name of a river marked in it, about the place where that of Tyne ought to be found. The present appellation of this river is implied in the first accounts of a religious house at Tinmouth, evidently so called from its vicinity to the mouth of the Tyne. The house alluded to was first erected a little after the beginning of the seventh century.

According to our author's information, glass-makers are said to have been first brought out of France into England A. D. 674, on the building of the new abbey of Weremouth, at a few miles distance from the mouth of the river Tyne; and he fixes the epoch of the glass-works upon the river Tyne about the year 1619, when they were established by Sir Robert Mansell, Knt. vice-admiral of England. The cheapness of sea-coal, as our author observes, was doubtless the chief inducement for erecting them at so great a distance from London.

Our author gives the following account of the monastery and castle of Tinmouth:

'Notwithstanding what has been advanced to the contrary by the learned Horsley, some recent discoveries seem clearly to prove to us, that the Romans had a station in this place during their residence in Britain.

'A religious house, doubtless of rude and simple architecture, is said to have been erected here in the very earliest ages of Christianity, and soon after the introduction of the monastic institution into our island.

'Edwin, King of the Northumbrians, sometime between the years of Christ 617 and 633, erected here of wood a place of residence for nuns only, as some writers inform us, but more probably for religious persons of both sexes, and in which his own daughter Rosella afterwards took the veil.

'Oswald,

'Oswald, a succeeding king of the same people, and who began his reign A.D. 634, soon afterwards caused this house of wood to be taken down, and raised upon the site thereof a new structure of stone; a circumstance which no doubt gave rise to the opinion of those writers who assert that this Oswald was the original founder of Tinmouth monastery.

'Mention occurs of an oratory dedicated to St. Mary at this place, soon after it had been rebuilt of stone, where a great number of persons of distinction assembled under a regular order for the performance of divine service; the monastery had by this time acquired such a reputation of local sanctity, that persons dying in the neighbourhood were brought to be interred in it according to a superstitious custom that prevailed in that age.

'Hither was conveyed for that purpose the murdered body of Oswin, King of Deira, one of the provinces of the then divided kingdom of Northumberland, who, through the treachery of the ungrateful Hunweld, fell a sacrifice to the ambition of Oswy, King of Bernicia, the other province, on the 13th of the kalends of September, A.D. 651, at a place called Chillingham, where Queen Eanfleda, a relation of the deceased king, is said to have erected a monastery for his soul. Harding, the writer of an old English chronicle in metre, has erroneously supposed her to have founded that of Tinmouth on this mournful occasion.

'The division of the kingdom of Northumberland is reported, and with great probability, to have been the cause of the quarrel between the kings Oswy and Oswin.

'Egfrid, made King of Northumberland A.D. 671, and who was slain May 20th, 685, was the founder of this monastery, if we will give credit to an old account, that Leland has preserved, of the ravages committed by the pagans in Northumberland during the reign of that king, and which cannot be reconciled with the former history of this place, unless we suppose it to have been destroyed, with other religious houses, in the time of that king, by the barbarous Danes, and to have been restored by his pious munificence; a conjecture which seems by no means to want probability.

'St. Herebald, the companion of St. John of Beverley, archbishop of York, who died A.D. 721, appears to have been a monk, and afterwards abbot of Tinmouth.

'Osred, the banished king of the Northumbrians, who was apprehended and slain on the 18th of the kalends of October, A.D. 792, on his return from exile, was afterwards interred in this monastery.

'In the year of Christ 800 the monastery of Tinmouth was plundered by the Danes.

'A.D. 832 an army of pirates from the same barbarous nation made an attempt to land at this place, but were routed and driven back to their ships.

'In the year 866, during the ravages of Hungar and Hubba, the monastery of Tinmouth is said to have been utterly destroyed.

'A.D. 870 a monastery of nuns occurs at this place as having been plundered by the same infidels, who, three years before, had subjugated the whole province of Northumberland.

'In the year 876 Tinmouth was again ravaged by Halfden, the Danish king.

'During the reign of Athelstan, King of the West-Saxons, which began A. D. 924, and ended in 946, this monastery, then hardly recovered from its former desolation, was again ravaged by the Danes.

'It is no wonder that, after having been so often plundered and destroyed, this place should have lain so long in ruins that the remembrance of King Oswin, the sainted patron thereof, was utterly lost.

'After some respite from the invasions of the Danish pirates, to whom its exposed situation on the sea coast rendered it an easy and defenceless prey; and who, by their repeated depredations, appear to have left nothing that could induce them to return, the then bishop of the diocese obtained it of the Earls of Northumberland; and, after filling it anew with religious, restored therein the celebration of divine service.

'It was not, however, till the latter end of the reign of Edward the Confessor that the bones of the royal martyr St. Oswin were discovered.

'About the conclusion of this reign, which ended in 1066, the royal saint and martyr Oswin, in one of those dreams common to the times, is said to have appeard to Edmund, the sexton of this place, and pointed out to him the place of his own interment. Judith, wife of Tosti, Earl of Northumberland, gave credit to the sexton's vision, and ceased not to exert her influence with Egelwine, then bishop of Durham, till he had ordered a search to be made for the royal bones, which are said to have been discovered in an oratory, according to the saint's directions in the vision, on the 5th of the ides of March, A. D. 1065, and 415 years after his death. The royal remains, after having been inclosed in a coffin, and honoured with every kind of funeral pomp, were recommitted to the sacred earth.

'Tosti, Earl of Northumberland, according to some writers, rebuilt this monastery from the foundation.'

Mr. Brand afterwards gives the history of Newcastle, as a corporate town, or borough; which is detailed with great and uninteresting minuteness through the remaining part of the work. In respect of coal, for which this place has been long so much distinguished, he justly observes, that though some writers have not scrupled to affirm that coal was unknown to the ancient Britons, yet others have contended for the contrary by almost irresistible arguments. The Britons, it appears, had a primitive name for this fossil; and Mr. Pennant informs us that a flint-ax, the instrument of the aborigines of our island, was discovered stuck in certain veins of coal, exposed to day, in Craig y Park in Monmouthshire, and in such a situation as to render it very accessible to the unexperienced natives, who in early times were incapable of pursuing the veins to any great depth. The

strongest

ſtrongeſt argument in favour of the opinion of thoſe who think that the Romans, while in Britain, were ignorant of this commodity, is, that their language affords no name for it; the genuine and determinate ſignification of *carbo* being charcoal. But the facts and teſtimonies adduced by our author afford much reaſon to conclude that coal, though at firſt unnoticed in Britain by the Romans, was afterwards in actual uſe amongſt them.

The ſecond volume, like the firſt, is accompanied with an appendix, containing various documents relative to the ſubject of the hiſtory. It would be a taſk no leſs unproductive of gratification to our readers than unneceſſary, and indeed almoſt impoſſible for us, to give a more particular account of this work. We have already expreſſed our diſapprobation of the frivolous prolixity and jejune minuteneſs with which it has been induſtriouſly executed; but we cannot conclude without acknowledging at the ſame time, in juſtice to Mr. Brand, that he appears to have ſpared no pains in amaſſing his extraordinary collection of materials; that he has preſerved the hiſtorical detail with uninterrupted exactneſs; and above all, that he has manifeſted, by the multiplicity of notes and references, a degree of learning, and an extent of inquiry, which, in a nobler field of hiſtorical reſearch, might have crowned his labours with more than common approbation. We muſt not omit to mention, in favour of the work, that it is embelliſhed with a great number of well-executed engravings.

ART. VI. *A Treatiſe of the Materia Medica. By William Cullen, M. D. Profeſſor of the Practice of Phyſic in the Univerſity of Edinburgh, &c. &c.* 4to. 2 vols. 1l. 11s. 6d. boards. Elliot and Kay. London, 1789.

DR. Cullen, it ſeems, from the ſucceſs of his lectures on the Materia Medica formerly publiſhed in his name, though extremely incorrect, had entertained a deſign of giving a more accurate and complete edition of thoſe lectures; but he afterwards abandoned that idea, and has modelled the work into the form in which it now appears. As if he had purpoſely reſolved to preclude incorrectneſs, as much as poſſible, by retrenchment, he has omitted a number of articles common in every treatiſe on this ſubject; and for theſe omiſſions he proceeds to offer an apology, or rather a juſtification of his conduct.

In the firſt place, he informs us that he did not think it neceſſary to detail the various nomenclature of the different ſubſtances, as it may be readily obtained elſewhere; and particularly he

he has not attempted to ascertain the nomenclature of the ancients, both because of the difficulty that would attend such a labour, and because he is very doubtful of its utility.

In ascertaining the species of plants, where several of the same genus may be employed, he has likewise purposely omitted entering into any critical discussion respecting their comparative superiority; thinking it enough for him to have marked, in the catalogue prefixed to his treatise, the botanical distinction of the species which he judged most fit to be employed.

Another omission, of a similar nature with the preceding, is the not giving any description of the particular medicines as they are employed, or fit to be employed. This, however, he acknowledges to have omitted because he could not do it so completely and accurately as the authors to whom he refers, and whom he supposes his readers to have in their hands.

The omission of the chemical analysis of the several substances he thinks, and very justly, will require no apology in the present age; but he doubts whether he shall be so easily forgiven for frequently omitting the treatment of substances by the application of different menstruums, and for not mentioning the quantities of extract that are obtained from each of them. He admits that an attention to these circumstances is very necessary in the pharmaceutic treatment of medicines; but he did not think it proper to increase the bulk of his work by details contained in books to which he refers, and which he wishes to recommend to all his readers. The books alluded to are the three following, viz. the Treatise of the Materia Medica by Dr. Lewis, as now published by Dr. Aikin; the Treatise of Petrus Jonas Bergius on the Materia Medica, taken from vegetables; and the Apparatus Medicaminum by the learned professor of Gottingen, Jo. Andreas Murray, knight of the royal order of Wasa.

Dr. Cullen's chief purpose in the present work is to give the principles upon which the various substances comprehended in the Materia Medica are to be judged of as medicines; to correct the errors of former writers in that respect; and to offer some new principles and doctrines which appear to him to be necessary. These doctrines are given partly in his general introduction, and partly in the reflections on the general operation of medicines, prefixed to the several chapters.

Such is the general plan of the work now before us, and such the particular motives which have actuated this learned and industrious author in the execution of it. We shall now proceed to give a concise account of its different parts.

After a general history of the Materia Medica, as it exists in the writings of the Greek and Arabian physicians, Dr. Cullen

traces the progreſs of this ſcience, through the various authors on the ſubject, from the revival of learning in the fifteenth century to the preſent time. This part of the work diſcovers much reading and attentive obſervation; but the inferences deducible from the whole are chiefly that the Materia Medica, with all its accumulated acquiſitions, has hitherto remained in a ſtate of great imperfection; that ſuperſtition, both ancient and modern, obſervations too ſlight, and concluſions likewiſe too precipitate, had given riſe to a multiplicity of errors, rendered venerable by long preſcription; and, in ſhort, that there was ſtill a neceſſity for ſuch a work as the preſent, to examine more ſtrictly the maſs of the Materia Medica, which has been reared by the ignorance of ages, and to eſtabliſh the virtues of medicines by the only true and unerring teſt, that of accurate obſervation and experience. In endeavouring to perform this uſeful undertaking, Dr. Cullen evinces a ſcrupulous regard to fact, and a judgment too ſtrong to be in the leaſt degree influenced by the prejudice of authority; but, at the ſame time, we are of opinion that, though he has exerciſed his critical talents with much ability in examining the writings of former authors, he treats them, in ſome inſtances, with a ſeverity of cenſure from which candour at leaſt, if not juſtice, might have exempted them.

The author next proceeds to conſider the action of medicines upon the body in general; concluding from obvious premiſes, that the peculiar effects of ſubſtances in general, or of thoſe ſubſtances in particular which are called medicines, when applied to the human body, depend on their action upon its ſentient and irritable parts. This naturally leads him to the conſideration of temperaments, concerning which the theory of the ancient phyſicians has long ſince been deſervedly exploded. To treat this ſubject in a philoſophical manner is a taſk attended with great difficulty, and would require very extenſive, as well as minute obſervation. Dr. Cullen, therefore, inſtead of diſtinguiſhing temperaments by marking the internal and obſervable circumſtances which are commonly combined together, proceeds to the inquiry in another way; and endeavours to conſider thoſe circumſtances of the internal ſtate of the human body which may give occaſion to a difference in the ſtate of the functions, and even in the external appearances which diſtinguiſh different men. Theſe circumſtances our author refers to five general heads, according as they occur, 1ſt. In the ſtate of the ſimple ſolids; 2dly. In the ſtate of the fluids; 3dly. In the proportion of ſolids and fluids in the body; 4thly. In the diſtribution of the fluids; and, 5thly, In the ſtate of the nervous power. Having treated of theſe ſeveral ſubjects, he next inquires into the nature of particular temperaments and idioſyncraſies; as theſe likewiſe

tend,

tend, though remotely, to account for the action of medicines upon the body in general.

In the ſecond chapter of this part of the work the learned profeſſor comes more immediately to the ſubject of pharmaceutical diſquiſition, and treats of the various means by which we arrive at the knowledge of the virtues of medicines. In proſecuting this inquiry he examines into the uſe of chemical reſolution in inveſtigating the virtues of different ſubſtances; the uſe of botanical affinities in aſcertaining the medical virtues of plants; the conſideration of the ſenſible qualities of ſubſtances, as pointing out their medical virtues; and, laſtly, the knowledge of the virtues of medicines by experience.

Dr. Cullen, after giving a ſhort account of the moſt proper plan for a treatiſe on the Materia Medica, preſents us with a dictionary of the general terms employed by writers on that ſubject. This chapter, which includes the catalogue of medicinal ſubſtances, is of great length, and may indeed be conſidered as liable to the charge of redundancy. For the inſtances are ſo few in which our author employs general terms in any peculiar acceptation, that either the latter might have been defined occaſionally, when they occurred, or the dictionary been reduced to a very ſmall number of articles.

We next meet with a copious treatiſe of aliments; which, after ſome obſervations on the cookery of meats, is followed by a chapter on drinks, ſucceeded by another of condiments. The article of which our author treats moſt copiouſly is that of milk, which he ſeems to have conſidered with more than common attention. As our limits will not permit us to detail the obſervations on this ſubject, we ſhall only mention that Dr. Cullen endeavours to invalidate the notion of the chyle alone affording the matter of milk, immediately on its reception into the blood-veſſels; a doctrine which we think he impugns by ſtrong arguments, founded upon facts and the eſtabliſhed principles of phyſiology.

Our ingenious author, having finiſhed all his preliminary ſubjects, introduces us to the Materia Medica in the beginning of the ſecond volume, through the whole of which it extends. He diſtinguiſhes medicines into the various claſſes uſual in ſyſtems of this kind; and prefixes to each chapter an account of the mode of operation aſſigned to the particular claſs of which they reſpectively conſiſt. The firſt is the tribe of aſtringents, conſidered by Dr. Cullen as diſtinct from that of the tonics, which forms the ſecond chapter of the volume. Next follow emollients, corroſives, ſtimulants, ſedatives, refrigerants, antiſpaſmodics, &c. If we except the Peruvian bark, opium, camphire, mercury, and a few other articles, of which our author treats

at conſiderable length, his account of medicines in general is neither large, nor diſtinguiſhed by any poſitive information different from what is to be found in the other modern ſyſtems of the Materia Medica. His opinion, however, is always delivered with an ingenuous freedom, characteriſtic of great experience; and where he happens to diſſent from the authority of others, we are ſatisfied that his remarks are more the reſult of accurate obſervation and an unbiaſſed judgment, than of any affectation of novelty. For the gratification of our readers, and as a ſpecimen of the work, we ſhall preſent them with an extract from the article on camphire, concerning the medicinal nature of which ſo many various and contradictory opinions have been entertained:

'The oppoſition of opinions appears ſtrongly from hence, that the controverſy has been commonly brought into the ſingle queſtion, Whether camphire be a heating or a cooling medicine with reſpect to the human body? or, as I would put it in other words, Whether it is a ſtimulant or a ſedative power? The queſtion has been often attempted to be determined by frivolous and ill-founded theories, both on one ſide and the other; but theſe ſhall be here entirely neglected, as we judge the queſtion muſt be abſolutely determined by experiments made upon the human body, aſſiſted, however, by ſome analogy, wherever it can be ſafely drawn, from experiments on brutes.

'To this purpoſe we remark, in the firſt place, that camphire taken into the mouth is of an acrid taſte; and though, by its evaporation, it excites a ſenſe of cold air, what remains is a ſenſe of heat in the mouth and fauces; and when taken down into the ſtomach, it often gives ſome pain and uneaſineſs, which we impute to the operation of its acrimony upon the upper orifice of that organ. Theſe may be conſidered as marks of its heating quality; and the ſame are more ſtrongly marked by its application to any ulcerated part, which it always evidently irritates and inflames.

'Theſe are indeed marks of a ſtimulant power; but hardly any thing correſponding to theſe appears upon its being thrown into the ſtomach of man or brute animals. It appears that in the ſtomach of animals it operates there by a ſmall portion of its effluvia; for when a maſs of any bulk has been thrown in, though it has produced conſiderable effects upon the body, neither the bulk nor weight of what had been thrown in are found to be ſenſibly diminiſhed; and in ſuch caſes it cannot be doubted that the operation has been entirely upon the nerves of the ſtomach, and by theſe on the reſt of the ſyſtem. This operation ſeems to me to be entirely that of a ſedative power; and we take its being of that kind on the ſtomach itſelf, which occaſions the indigeſtion of the food which has been conſtantly obſerved to follow its exhibition in any large quantity.

'The ſedative effects, however, are ſtill more evident and conſiderable in the ſenſorium. The death of ſo many animals, ſuddenly occaſioned by it, in the experiments of Menghin, can be explained

in no other way but by the power of this ſubſtance, like that of other poiſons, in deſtroying the mobility of the nervous power, and thereby extinguiſhing the vital principle. It is in illuſtration of this that it ſo often operates by firſt inducing ſtupor and ſleep; and the other ſymptoms of delirium, furor, and convulſions, can all be probably explained as we have done with reſpect to other poiſons, by the ſtruggle that occurs between the force of the ſedative power and the reaction of the ſyſtem.

'But before we go further, it is proper to inquire what are its effects on the ſanguiferous ſyſtem. And here at leaſt we can aſſert that it ſhews in the firſt inſtance no ſtimulant power. I regret that in the account of the experiments on brutes that we have met with, there is no mention of the ſtate of their pulſe; but I think we have enough of experiments on men to aſcertain this matter. The experiments of Hoffman aſſure us that the pulſe was not rendered more frequent, or the ſkin warmer, by twenty grains and upwards of camphire being taken into the ſtomach. The experiments of Griffin and Alexander rather ſhew that the frequency of the pulſe was diminiſhed by large doſes of camphire. To theſe we may add the experiments of Berger, Werlhoff, Laſſone, Home, and eſpecially thoſe of Collin.

'The laſt, in giving ſome hundred inſtances of the exhibition of camphire in large doſes, even to the quantity of half an ounce in the courſe of one day, has not, in any one inſtance, taken notice of the frequency of the pulſe, or of the heat of the body being increaſed by it. In the caſe in which half an ounce of camphire had been exhibited, the patient was examined by the Baron Van Swieten, and ſome other phyſicians, who could not miſs to have taken notice of its heating the body, if any ſuch effect had appeared. I myſelf have frequently given twenty grains of camphire, without ever finding the frequency of the pulſe increaſed by it, and ſometimes manifeſtly diminiſhed.

'I once had a maniacal patient, a young woman between twenty-five and thirty years of age, whom I was reſolved to try the cure of by camphire; and beginning by five grains for a doſe, and increaſing it by the ſame quantity every evening, I brought it at length to a doſe of thirty grains; and that doſe in imitation of Dr. Kinnear, I repeated for four nights together. During all this I never found the frequency of the pulſe increaſed; and when the larger doſes were employed, the pulſe was frequently brought to be ten ſtrokes fewer in a minute than it had been before. At the ſame time, ſo little change was made in the ſtate of the mania, that I was reſolved to give up the trial; but the apothecary, by a groſs error in Baddam's abridgment of the Philoſophical Tranſactions, was led to think that I had miſtaken Dr. Kinnear's practice, and had not carried the doſe of camphire ſo far as he had done. Proceeding upon this ſuppoſition, he preſumed to give forty grains of camphire for the next night's doſe. In about half an hour after this had been exhibited, I was ſent for to ſee my patient; who, after beating upon her breaſt as if ſhe had felt ſome uneaſineſs there, had fallen down ſeemingly in a faint. She appeared to me quite inſenſible, with her pulſe very

weak and hardly to be felt, and her breathing hardly to be obſerved, with a paleneſs and coldneſs over her whole body. I judged her to be dying; but by holding ſome ſpirits of hartſhorn to her noſe, and chafing her extremities with warm flannels, ſhe was ſo far recovered as to ſwallow a little warm milk, and afterwards a little warm wine; and, by theſe meaſures continued for two or three hours, her pulſe and the heat of her body were a good deal recovered, and ſhe had the appearance of being in a ſleep, in which ſhe was allowed to continue till morning, when ſhe came out of it by degrees, with her pulſe very much in its natural ſtate. At the ſame time the mania was alſo in the ſame ſtate as before, and continued to be ſo for ſome months afterwards, when I ceaſed to inquire after her.

'Dr. Hoffman gives us the hiſtory of a perſon who, by miſtake, took at one draught two ſcruples of camphire, which occaſioned violent diſorder; but the operation was at firſt like that in the caſe above mentioned, a weakneſs and paleneſs of the whole body, which evidently ſhewed a ſedative operation.

'From ſo many experiments directly in point, I ſhall be ſurpriſed if any body ſhall deny the ſedative and aſſert the ſtimulant power of camphire; and when I find Quarin giving the following account, 'Vidi enim (he ſays) in multis, quibus camphora majori doſi exhibita fuit, pulſum celerrimum, faciem ruberrimam, oculos torvos, inflammatos, convulſiones et phrenitidem lethalem ſecutam fuiſſe,' I, who in an hundred inſtances of the exhibition of camphire, both in ſmaller and larger doſes, never ſaw ſuch effects produced, muſt think that either he or I had our ſenſes ſtrangely biaſſed by preconceived opinions of the ſtimulant or ſedative power of camphire. I am, however, the more diſpoſed to truſt to my own ſenſes, becauſe I have frequently had my fellow-practitioners concurring with me in the ſame perceptions.'

We are perſuaded, with Dr. Cullen, that the good effects of the preparations of iron have been often miſſed by their being given in too ſmall doſes; but we are a little ſurpriſed to find that his experience has differed ſo much from our own with regard to the doſes of thoſe medicines. While he has hardly found any ſtomach that would bear two drachms of any chalybeate preparation in one day, we, on the contrary, have found few which could not bear double, or even three times that quantity, with great eaſe. We have known it taken in the quantity of three drachms at a doſe, which was repeated thrice a day; ſo that within this ſpace the patient took nine drachms; and we have little doubt that a larger doſe might have been adminiſtered without producing an irritation of the ſtomach. Sometimes a ſlight tendency to a watering of the mouth has been perceived, but unattended with any degree of ſickneſs; and the only ſenſible effect produced by the largeſt doſe, was a more plentiful diſcharge than uſual of limpid urine, which ſhewed the kidnies to be affected with a ſpaſmodic conſtriction. The reſult

was

was the ſame, whether the iron was taken in ſubſtance or ruſt; nor could there, from the uſual diagnoſtic in thoſe caſes, be any reaſon to doubt that the mineral was partially at leaſt, if not totally, diſſolved in the ſtomach.

Before we diſmiſs this work, we muſt ingenuouſly acknowledge that we have reaped great ſatisfaction, not without ſome diſappointment, in peruſing it. We had expected that it would have formed, of itſelf, a complete ſyſtem of pharmaceutical ſcience, independently of any reference to other ſubſidiary publications on the ſubject. The author's remarks, likewiſe, though always well-founded and judicious, are frequently not deciſive in any juſt proportion to his attentive obſervation and experience; and we think that he ſometimes diſcovers ſuch a degree of candour in diſſent, and of diffidence in aſſertion, as almoſt amount to a preclusion of any poſitive inference. The work, however, may juſtly be conſidered as a moſt valuable inquiry into the virtues of medicinal ſubſtances, as well as an admirable ſyſtem of phyſiological and pathological obſervations. Nor can we refrain from congratulating the medical world on the appearance of a publication which tends ſo much to fix the ſtandard of practical knowledge in medicine, and which is ſanctioned by the venerable authority of this learned and celebrated profeſſor.

ART. VII. *Philoſophical Tranſactions of the Royal Society of London, Vol. LXXVI. For the Year* 1786. *Part II.* 4to. 8s. 6d. ſewed. Davis. London, 1786.

THIS part of the annual volume is more than commonly intereſting and important; but the number of other publications which demand our attention will not permit us to give ſo minute an account of the ſeveral articles as otherwiſe the ſubjects might claim. The firſt in this continuation is

Art. XIV. New Experiments upon heat. By Col. Sir Benjamin Thompſon, Knt. F. R. S. Sir Benjamin Thompſon's object, in this inquiry, was to aſcertain what power a vacuum had in conducting heat; and he choſe for the purpoſe the moſt perfect vacuum, that of Toricelli, made by the aſſiſtance of mercury, entirely freed from air by boiling in the tube. Though his contrivances were ingenious, but almoſt univerſally attended with one objection, which is, that the exhauſted tube touched in ſome point the tube of the thermometer; or the communication was made through a medium, the conducting power of which was greater than that of glaſs. Even with this imperfection, however, it appeared that the vacuum was a worſe conductor than air; ſo that, *a fortiori*, if it were poſſible entirely to inſulate

the thermometer, it would probably be found to conduct heat ſtill more imperfectly.

Colonel Thompſon tried likewiſe the conducting power of fixed air; but his experiment at firſt failed, from his not being aware of the expanſile power of that element; which is ſo great that it is found to expand almoſt twice as much as common air. On the whole, the colonel's experiments are not deciſive on any point; but he has opened a proſpect to an inquiry which may afterwards prove more ſucceſsful.

Art. XV. Hiſtory and Diſſection of an extraordinary Introſuſception, By John Coakley Lettſom, M. D. F. R. S. and A. S. In this introſuſception, one of the moſt extenſive of which we remember to have ſeen any account, the arch of the colon was inverted, and received into the lower part of the ſame gut which forms the ſigmoid flexure. The ileum therefore was become the reſervoir of the fæces, and was greatly enlarged by their bulk. The ſymptoms attending this caſe appear to have been thoſe of a dyſentery only.

Art. XVI. New Experiments on the Ocular Spectra of Light and Colours. By R. Waring Darwin, M. D. Ocular ſpectra are the images which remain on the retina after looking attentively on any bright object, and continue, when the eyes are ſhut, with different hues and varied appearances, not always permanent, but recurring at intervals. The experiments in this paper are, we think, not entirely new, but they are varied by ſubſtituting different objects, of different colours, in a diverſity of circumſtances. In the firſt ſet of experiments, the ſpectrum alternately appears and diſappears, or its colours change. When the eye is preſſed there is a flaſh of light; when a perſon becomes dizzy by turning rapidly round, the objects ſeem to libbrate. From theſe facts Dr. Darwin concludes that light does not act by mechanical impulſe, or chemical combination, as theſe phenomena are inconſiſtent with either; but that, in producing theſe ſpectra, the retina itſelf is active. We have extracted the following paſſage on this ſubject, as much of the author's reaſoning depends on what it contains:

'It is not abſurd to conceive that the retina may be ſtimulated into motion, as well as the red and white muſcles which form our limbs and veſſels; ſince it conſiſts of fibres, like thoſe, intermixed with its medullary ſubſtance. To evince this ſtructure, the retina of an ox's eye was ſuſpended in a glaſs of warm water, and forcibly torn in a few places; the edges of theſe parts appeared jagged and hairy, and did not contract, and become ſmooth like ſimple mucus, when it is diſtended till it breaks; which ſhews that it conſiſts of fibres; and this its fibrous conſtruction became ſtill more diſtinct to the ſight, by adding ſome cauſtic alkali to the water, as the adhering mucus was

was firſt eroded, and the hair-like fibres remained floating in the veſſel. Nor does the degree of tranſparency of the retina invalidate the evidence of its fibrous ſtructure, ſince Leeuwenhoek has ſhewn that the cryſtalline humour itſelf conſiſts of fibres. (Arcana Naturæ, V. 1. p. 70.)

'Hence it appears, that as the muſcles have larger fibres intermixed with a ſmaller quantity of nervous medulla, the organ of viſion has a greater quantity of nervous medulla intermixed with ſmaller fibres; and it is probable that the locomotive muſcles, as well as the vaſcular ones, of microſcopic animals have much greater tenuity than theſe of the retina.

'And beſides the ſimilar laws, which will be ſhewn in this paper to govern alike the actions of the retina and of the muſcles, there are many other analogies which exiſt between them. They are both originally excited into action by irritations, both act nearly in the ſame quantity of time, are alike ſtrengthened or fatigued by exertion, are alike painful if excited into action when they are in an inflamed ſtate, are alike liable to paralyſis, and to the torpor of old age.'

According to the arguments above advanced by the author, he confounds the functions of the nerves with thoſe of the muſcular fibres; for we have no evidence of contraction taking place in fibres purely medullary. But this is not the only part where he ſpeaks of the ſpaſmodic actions of the retina; his fifth ſection is almoſt entirely occupied with that ſubject. Though we muſt therefore queſtion the juſtneſs of a theory which reſts on ſo uncertain a foundation, we think Dr. Darwin's experiments, in general, are properly diverſified, and he has illuſtrated them with great perſpicuity.

Art. XVII. Obſervations on ſome Cauſes of the Exceſs of the Mortality of Males above that of Females. By Joſeph Clarke, M. D. It is found, from the examination of regiſters, that the number of males born exceeds that of females; but, by the greater proportion of males who die at an early age, this difference ſeems to be compenſated. In different countries, however, the proportions are obſerved to be unequal; whence ariſes ſome doubt reſpecting the final cauſe uſually aſſigned for the ſuperior number of males born in moſt of the European climates. But ſome other facts of conſequence ſeem to be eſtabliſhed by the accurate paper now before us. Dr. Clarke obſerves that males grow to a greater ſize than females; and that they require a better formation of the pelvis to paſs with equal ſafety. In great towns, therefore, where the conſtitutions of the mothers are affected by luxury and local cauſes, the life of the male fœtus is more uncertain than that of the female; not only by the greater difficulty attending their birth, but becauſe they require more plentiful nutrition. From this latter circumſtance,

ſtance, Dr. Clarke informs us that near $\frac{1}{2}$ more twins die, and near $\frac{1}{3}$ are ſtill-born, than of ſingle children.

In the ſecond letter Dr. Clarke examines more particularly the ſize and weight of new-born infants of each ſex. On an average, the weight of a new-born male was found to be ſeven pounds, five ounces, ſeven drachms, the circumference of the head fourteen inches, and the dimenſions from ear to ear ſeven inches and a quarter; while, in females, the former was ſix pounds, eleven ounces, ſix drachms; and the latter $13\frac{1}{8}$—$7\frac{2}{5}$. The following obſervations are worthy of being preſented to our readers:

'In reckoning children, weighing from $5\frac{1}{2}$ to $6\frac{1}{2}$, 6 pounds weight, and from $6\frac{1}{2}$ to $7\frac{1}{2}$, 7, and ſo forth, in order to avoid fractions, I find the numbers of males and females, arranged according to their weight, to ſtand as follow:

Males.								Females.							
lbs.	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	lbs.	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
N°.	0	3	6	32	16	2	1	N°.	2	9	14	25	8	2	0

'Hence it appears that the majority of males runs thus: ſeven, eight, ſix, five; whilſt that of the females is ſeven, ſix, five, eight. Hence alſo appears the merciful diſpenſations of Providence towards the female ſex; for when deviations from the medium ſtandard occur, it is remarkable that they are much more frequently below than above this ſtandard. In 120 inſtances there are only five children exceeding eight pounds and an half in weight. The ſame may be obſerved with regard to the ſize of their heads. Only ſix meaſured above $14\frac{1}{2}$ inches in circumference, and theſe all of the male ſex; five meaſured $14\frac{1}{4}$, and one 15. In tranſverſe dimenſions only four exceeded $7\frac{3}{4}$, the largeſt of which was $8\frac{1}{2}$; whereas deviations under the ſtandard in theſe particulars were very numerous, never, however, under 12 around and $6\frac{1}{2}$ acroſs.'

Art. XVIII. Some particulars of the preſent State of Mount Veſuvius; with the Account of a Journey into the province of Abruzzo, and a Voyage to the Iſland of Ponza. By Sir William Hamilton, K. B. F. R. S. and A. S. Among the various objects of curioſity in this intereſting paper, Sir William Hamilton deſcribes the Lake of Celaro, and the emiſſary to drain it conſtructed by the Emperor Claudius; the latter of which is a moſt magnificent monument of antiquity. The outlet is now filled up with rubbiſh; and, what is remarkable, the lake increaſes, while, in every other part of the world, the water, except from a change in its courſe, ſeems to leſſen in quantity.

In the deſcription of the iſland of Stephano, we meet with a curious account of the provident foreſight of hawks, which ſeize the

the quails, as they arrive from Africa, and lay them up in ſeparate parcels, according to the time at which they are killed, and eat them in the order of their ſtaleneſs, while the greedier gulls devour them at once.

Art. XIX. An Account of a new Electrical Fiſh. By Lieutenant William Paterſon. This fiſh was found at Joanna, one of the Comora iſlands. It is a coral iſland; and the fiſh was caught in one of its hollows. Mr. Paterſon is of opinion that it belongs to the genus Tetrodon. It gave a ſtrong electrical ſhock even when it was weak.

Art. XX. Obſervations of the Tranſit of Mercury over the Sun's Diſc, made at Louvain, May 3, 1786. By Nathaniel Pigott, Eſq. F. R. S.

Art. XXI. Obſervation of the late Tranſit of Mercury over the Sun, obſerved by Edward Pigott, Eſq at Louvain. The emerſion of the centre of Mercury, from the ſun's limb, differed 53′ from the time allotted by M. de la Lande, allowing for the difference of the meridians between Paris and Louvain.

Art. XXII. Additional Obſervations on making a Thermometer for meaſuring the higher Degrees of Heat. By Mr. Joſiah Wedgwood, F. R. S. In our Review for February laſt we mentioned Mr. Wedgwood's firſt attempt on this ſubject. The thermometer he conſtructed was made of the calx of iron and clay; a compoſition which was obſerved to aſſume, from different degrees of fire, ſuch a number of diſtinct colours and ſhades, as promiſed to afford critoria of the reſpective degrees. This ingenious artiſt in making his thermometer, for the account of which we muſt refer to the number abovementioned of our Journal, had to encounter with difficulties which it is not eaſy to explain. They conſiſted, however, partly in the different preſſure which different parts of the thermometer received in its formation, and ſomewhat on its form. Difficulties likewiſe aroſe from a diverſity in the clay; which, though taken from the ſame ſtratum, and the ſame depth, exhibited a difference in the degree of contraction, ſometimes in the lower heats, at others in the higher degrees. To mention theſe difficulties is the moſt that we can do on the preſent ſubject; for the proſecution of which, as it cannot be rendered intelligible by any abridgment, we muſt refer our readers to the work.

Art. XXIII. The Latitude and Longitude of York determined from a Variety of Aſtronomical Obſervations; together with a Recommendation of the Method of determining the Longitude of Places by Obſervations of the Moon's Tranſit over the Meridian. By Edward Pigott, Eſq. According to Mr. Pigott's

Pigott's observations, the latitude of York is 53° 57′ 45″; its longitude is 4′ 31″ west of Greenwich.

Art. XXIV. Advertisement of the expected Return of the Comet of 1532 and 1661, in the Year 1788. By the Rev. Nevil Maskelyne, D.D. F.R.S. Dr. Halley at first supposed the comets of 1532 and 1661, from the similarity of the elements of their orbits, to be one and the same; and though he afterwards seemed to retract this opinion, it has been generally adopted by astronomers. They accordingly expected its return, making an allowance for its supposed retardation in 1789. Agreeably to this conjecture, Dr. Maskelyne had calculated that it might be expected at its perihelium about the beginning of the year 1789, certainly before the 27th of April. In this instance, however, the expectation of astronomers has been disappointed; and it remains for future observations to ascertain the periodical return of this eccentric planet.

Art. XXV. A new Method of finding Fluents by Continuation. By the Rev. S. Vince, A. M. F. R. S. This problem was suggested by Sir Isaac Newton, who perceived its utility; and, since that time, many eminent mathematicians have made it a subject of inquiry. The method proposed by Mr. Vince is not only simple and convenient, but appears to be entirely new.

Art. XXVI. Conjectures relative to the Petrifactions found in St. Peter's Mountain, near Maestricht. By P. Camper, M. D. F. R. S. Among those petrifactions, discovered in 1770, were some large jaw-bones, which M. Hoffman supposed to have belonged to a crocodile; but in this he doubtless was mistaken. They were found with corals, madrepores, alcyoniums, echinites, belemnites, turtle, and other bones, evidently pertaining to sea animals, and not to an amphibious reptile, usually found in rivers. They likewise differed from the crocodile's jaws in several respects, particularly in having teeth on the palate. The vertebræ are evidently not those of a crocodile, which have transverse sutures; and the parts divided are clearly not epiphyses. Neither are the articulations of the fossil vertebræ similar to those of a crocodile. On the whole, it seems probable that these fossil jaw-bones belonged to the respiring fishes, and perhaps to the genus delphinus.

Art. XXVII. Catalogue of One Thousand new Nebulæ and Clusters of Stars. By William Herschel, LL.D. F.R.S. These nebulæ have been discovered entirely by Dr. Herschel, and give a strong confirmation to his opinion that we are situated within a system of stars. The catalogue is preceded by very ingenious contrivances to take an extensive survey of the different

different parts of the hemiſphere in one night. The author can, by means of theſe and his teleſcope, which is likewiſe deſcribed, follow any object in the firmament for near a quarter of an hour, without diſturbing the ſituation of the apparatus.

Art. XXVIII. Inveſtigation of the Cauſe of that indiſtinctneſs of Viſion which has been aſcribed to the Smallneſs of the Optic Pencils. By William Herſchel, LL.D. F.R.S. Different writers on optics have maintained that viſion will be indiſtinct when the optic pencils are leſs than the 40th or 50th part of an inch. Dr. Herſchel, however, has found that he could ſee clearly the briſtles on the edge of the wing of a fly, when the optic pencil was only the 173d part of an inch. By purſuing his reſearches, he at laſt diſcovered that the indiſtinctneſs aroſe not from the cauſe generally imagined, but from the want of a juſt proportion between the aperture of the focal length of an object-glaſs or ſpeculum. The 34th part of the focal length is not a ſufficient aperture for the object-lens.

The uſual liſt of preſents and donors concludes the preſent volume, which, in point of curious reſearch and utility, has afforded us more gratification than we commonly reap from detailing the ſubjects of this work.

ART. VIII. *The Memoirs of Khojeh Abdulkurreem, a Caſhmerian of Diſtinction, who accompanied Nadir Shah on his Return from Hindoſtan to Perſia; from whence he travelled to Baghdad, Damaſcus, and Aleppo, and, after viſiting Medina and Mecca, embarked on a Ship at the Port of Jeddee, and ſailed to Hooghly in Bengal. Including the Hiſtory of Hindoſtan from A. D. 1739 to 1749; with an Account of the European Settlements in Bengal, and on the Coaſt of Coromandel. Tranſlated from the original Perſian by Francis Gladwin, Eſq.* 8vo. 5s. ſewed Mackay, Calcutta. 1788.

THESE Memoirs are intereſting, rather from the ſituation than the talents of their author. He introduces them by a preface, in which, though in the luxuriance of the oriental ſtyle, he gives a modeſt account of himſelf and his work. He tells us he was born in the land of Caſhmeer, the ſemblance of the celeſtial paradiſe, the inheritance of our great anceſtor; that, like him, he was baniſhed from his native ſoil, but with this difference, that Adam's exile was the conſequence of ſin. When Nadir Shah invaded Hindoſtan he dwelt in the city of Shahjchanabad (or Dehly). He had long wiſhed to make a pilgrimage to Mecca, to viſit the holy ſhrine, and to kiſs the feet of the true

true believers. He proceeds to obſerve, more piouſly perhaps than philoſophically, that, as every one who heartily perſeveres will ſurely obtain the object of his wiſhes, he procured an introduction to Nadir Shah, who, on condition that he entered into his ſervice, promiſed that he ſhould be allowed to perform the pilgrimage to Mecca.

After plundering the treaſures of the Mogul, Nadir Shah left him in the poſſeſſion of his dominions. Tyrants, ſays Monteſquieu, have been loudly praiſed by hiſtorians for reſtoring their crowns to princes whom they have vanquiſhed. But this conduct has been generally the effect, not of generoſity, but of profound policy. In vain will a conqueror attempt to preſerve the poſſeſſion of an extenſive country which he has ſubdued, ſince the governors whom he appoints will neither be able to keep the people in ſubjection, or be diſpoſed themſelves to continue long faithful to the ſervice of their maſter. By giving the throne to the legitimate prince, he acquires a neceſſary ally, and increaſes his military ſtrength without diſtreſſing his own territories.

When Nadir Shah had performed this political act of generoſity, he marched, ſays our author, from Dehly and encamped in the garden of Shalehmar. Terror was the principle upon which he governed his army. He was conſequently ſo deteſted by his ſoldiers that even victory could not diminiſh their hatred. Conſcious that they had cauſe for deſertion, he gave ſtrict orders that all who ſhould be found in Dehly after his departure, ſhould have their ears and noſes cut off, and be ſent to him in that condition. This ſevere puniſhment did not deter many from remaining; and ſeveral were ſo unfortunate as to have the puniſhment inflicted on them.

On his march his firſt expedition was againſt the Afghans of Youſef Zei, a people who had till then preſerved their independence inviolate. After a ſevere ſlaughter they were compelled to ſubmit. To obtain quarter, they engaged to pay a tribute, and to furniſh Nadir Shah's army with thirty thouſand effective men. Though fear, however, reſtrained them from open hoſtility, revenge prompted them to ſecret treachery. In the ſilence of midnight three Afghans ſwam the river which ſeparated them from Nadir Shah. The noiſe of their feet in his outer tent awoke him; he removed to another place, and, being ignorant of their number, prudently obſerved a profound ſilence. They entered the apartment he had quitted, and, though diſappointed in their deſign of aſſaſſinating him, carried off the moſt valuable effects which they could find. The guards were ſoon alarmed, but the Afghans plunged into the water, dived (ſays the author) like aligators, and croſſed the river with

their booty. In the morning, the guards, by whoſe neglect they had been able to paſs, were puniſhed with different degrees of ſeverity proportionate to their guilt.

The march of a numerous army is generally deſtructive, in ſome degree, to itſelf, and to the countries through which it paſſes. To puniſh the Soobahdar of Sind for not meeting him according to his orders at Cabul, Nadir Shah determined to croſs a very dangerous and rapid river, in which he loſt near a fourth part of the plunder of Hindoſtan. Every village he paſſed through was deſerted by its inhabitants, and his troops were repeatedly in danger of periſhing by famine. A ſingle exception to this general terror ſhall be related by the author himſelf: 'The only perſon that I ſaw was a fat Brahmin 'ſitting upon the highway, begging alms in the names of Ram 'and Mahadeo. I did all I could to perſuade him to ſave him-'ſelf by flight from the fury of the ſoldiers, who were near at 'hand; but he was ſo infatuated that he would not ſtir, and 'even aſked me if I envied him the alms which he ſhould 'obtain! During our converſation a party of Bukhtyearees 'came up, and, binding the poor wretch hand and foot, they 'cut him in pieces to try the ſharpneſs of their ſwords.'

The Soobahdar of Sind, though compelled to ſurrender, obtained honourable terms of capitulation. The ſcarcity of water and proviſions, rather than the generoſity of Nadir Shah, was, however, the cauſe of this lenity. Yet a deſpotic monarch, at the head of a victorious army, has ſome merit in not violating his engagements.

In the progreſs of the army little occurs worthy of remark till Nadir Shah prepares to make an attack upon the Turkomans. The troops on each ſide are drawn up in order of battle. A violent conflict enſues, and the Turkomans, being poſſeſſed of the ground between the river Gihoon and the Perſian army, the Kezlebaſhes are much diſtreſſed for water, and on the point of being routed. As ſoon as he knows their diſtreſs, Nadir Shah ſends immediately for the two Sucka Baſhees, whoſe duty it is to ſupply the camp with water, and orders their ears to be cut off. He then gallops to the front of his troops, upbraids his officers for their delay, and commands them to prepare for an attack. Animated by his example, the army forget their thirſt, ruſh forward with united fury, and totally rout their enemies.

A fortunate circumſtance, which by a partial hiſtorian would have been attributed to policy, happened ſoon after this victory. To prevent the corn from being injured by the weather, Nadir Shah ordered that fifteen thouſand jackets, and twelve thouſand pair of long drawers, ſhould be filled with it. After their defeat, the Uſbecks formed a deſign of burning the boats, and ſent

ſpies

ſpies to gain intelligence of their poſition. Arriving in the night, and ſeeing the clothes ſtuffed with grain, they concluded that men were guarding the boats, and returned with ſuch a report as deterred the Uſbecks from their enterpriſe. Had it been ſucceſsful, the whole army muſt have periſhed by famine.

Though the work before us is not diſtinguiſhed by any acuteneſs of remark, or depth of reflection, yet there is a plainneſs and piety in the author's manner which entitle him to reſpect and confidence. His account of the murder of Nadir Shah, though he was not then with the army, but on his pilgrimage to Mecca, we ſhall give in his own words:

'An ACCOUNT of the Murder of NADIR SHAH.

'About this time, by letters from the miniſters of Nadir Shah, and from the accounts of perſons juſt arrived from Perſia, was learnt the following intelligence:

'Nadir Shah commenced his expedition againſt the Lezekee of Daghiſtan, for which he was making preparations when I took my leave of him at Cazvin. As he had conquered Hindoſtan and Turan without experiencing any of the hardſhips of war, he vainly imagined that he ſhould alſo now carry all before him, and arrogantly declared that he would make proſtitutes of all the virgin daughters of their great men; and, in retaliation of the blood of his brother, would decapitate five thouſand Lezekees; and confiding ſolely in his own ſtrength, ſought not the aid and favour of heaven. But the Lezekees, who are remarkable for their ſtrength and valour, gave him a different reception from what he had expected.

'I have heard from many of the ſervants, who attended his perſon, that in the wars of Hindoſtan, Turan, and Turkey, he never neglected his ablutions; but would then humble himſelf by proſtrating his forehead in the duſt, and make prayers and ſupplications to God; and that particularly during the battle with the Omrahs of Hindoſtan, he alighted from his horſe, rubbed his face againſt the earth, and made loud proteſtations of his own unworthineſs. But in the war of Daghiſtan, he behaved in a manner quite contrary, being inflated with pride and arrogance, neglecting his duty to God; in conſequence of which, he experienced a reverſe of fortune; for the Lezekees, after having made great ſlaughter amongſt his troops, took refuge in their mountains; and thus, although in fact victorious, he was obliged to give up the war, without having committed the rapine, and ſatiated his revenge, in the manner he had meditated and threatened. After his return from Daghiſtan, he ſtaid ſome time in Iran, to prepare for the Turkiſh war. He then marched to Kerhook, and, after plundering Mouſſel, Diarbeker, and other places in that quarter, which I have deſcribed, proceeded to Nejeff and Kerbela, where he viſited the ſhrines of the Imams, and then proceeded through Irak Agem to Khoraſan.

'Allavee Khan, when he was at the court of Perſia, availing himſelf of Nadir Shah's favour and kindneſs, employed the opportunities, whilſt

whilſt he was preſcribing medicine, to adminiſter alſo wholeſome advice, and which the Shah took in very good part. The Hukeem Baſhy was alſo continually exerting his ſkill to correct the impetuoſity of his temper, for the benefit of mankind; and, by a proper medical treatment, his diſpoſition was ſo much improved, that for a fortnight together he would not order the diſcipline of the ſtick, much leſs command any one to be deprived of his eyes or life. And eſpecially when the attempt was made to aſſaſſinate him on the borders of Mazenderan, in the manner already deſcribed, he did not puniſh any one until he had coolly and deliberately inveſtigated the matter. But after the departure of Allavee Khan, his own phyſicians from the dread of offending him, ſuffered the peccant humours again to predominate, when he returned to his old courſes; every day, for the moſt trifling offences, he would order ſome to be deprived of their eyes, and others of life. At laſt his cruelty had riſen to ſuch a pitch, that he had reſolved to have a general maſſacre of his Perſian troops, by the hands of the Afghans and Uzbecks, in whom alone he now placed confidence. But he was himſelf murdered the very night preceding the morning in which he had determined to put his bloody purpoſe into execution. The following are the particulars of this event. On the night of the 11th of Jemady ul Sany, A. H. 1160 (or June 8th, 1747), near the city of Khojoon, three days journey from Meſhed, Mohammed Kuly Khan Ardemee, who was of the ſame tribe with Nadir Shah, his relation, and Kuſhukchee Baſhee, with ſeventy of the Kukſhek or guard, as well from a view to ſelf-preſervation, as at the inſtigation of their commander, bound themſelves by an oath to aſſaſſinate Nadir Shah; but when the appointed hour arrived, fifty-ſeven of them being ſeized with a panic, refuſed to join in the execution of the plot. The other thirteen, however, at night tore down the Seraperdah, and entering the Haram, killed the eunuch upon guard, who refuſed them admittance; they then proceeded to the Shah. The ſubſtance of the various accounts is, that they diſpatched him with a matchlock ball, with blows, and wounds, with ſwords and knives. It is ſaid that at firſt he raged and abuſed, and then humbly ſupplicated for mercy; but neither prevailing, he was obliged to ſubmit to his fate.

'The women, with the jewel-office and other valuable effects, having been ſent on before to Kelat, under the charge of Naſſirulla Mirza, eſcaped the fury and rapine of the aſſaſſins. At daybreak, when the principal Omrahs aſſembled together to inveſtigate this aſtoniſhing event, they found the trunk of Nadir Shah lying headleſs on the ground, and an old woman lamenting over the head. The troops and the country people now plundered the Shah's camp with that fury of which he had ſet them the example in Hindoſtan, Turan, Turkey, and other places. His head was ſent to Aly Kuly Khan, his brother's ſon, who had occaſioned the conſpiracy in order to raiſe himſelf to the throne. From hence is to be learnt, that it is better for kings to repoſe confidence in their ſervants than in their neareſt relations. Nine days after the aſſaſſination, Aly Kuly Khan ordered

the body to be removed to Meſhed, where it was buried on the fifteenth day, in the mauſoleum which Nadir Shah had prepared for himſelf.

'A variety of contemptible anagrams were made of the letters which form the date of his death, and amongſt the reſt the following: 'In fire, in hell, with his grandfather and father.'

'The date of his acceſſion to the throne may be thus expreſſed: 'It is good, in what has happened.'

'To ſpeak the truth, Nadir Shah was a brave and experienced ſoldier, poſſeſſed of an acute, diſcriminating underſtanding, with activity, reſolution, and foreſight; he knew very well how to conquer, and to make himſelf obeyed, but he was totally ignorant of the true principles of government, for the proſperity of a kingdom; and the impetuoſity of his temper, his cruelty and hardneſs of heart, made his name univerſally abhorred and deteſted. From a verſe of Sheikh Mohammed Aly Hazeen, it ſhould ſeem that Nadir Shah's grandfather, Imam Kuly Beg, was a ſkinner: however, as it has been obſerved by a reſpectable perſonage, we ought not, on this occaſion, to give entire credit to the poet's aſſertion, ſince he was an enemy to the Shah, and fled into Hindoſtan from the dread of him. His age has not been exactly aſcertained, for want of his horoſcope. From the appearance of his countenance, the ſtrength of his limbs, and the vigour of his faculties, he did not ſeem to be above fifty years of age. Some fix his birth in A. H. 1099 (or A. D. 1687); and I have ſomewhere ſeen it written that he was born on the 27th of Ramzan 1102, or 13th June 1691. His beard was quite white, and he uſed to have it dyed black regularly twice a week. Having loſt all his double teeth, he ſeldom eat food that required much maſtigation, and when he did, ſwallowed it without chewing. His front teeth were all ſound and firm in his head.

'After the death of Nadir Shah, his nephew Aly Kuly Khan, with the aſſiſtance of Thomas Aly Khan Jelayer, and others of the nobility, mounted the throne, and aſſumed the title of Aly Shah. He got poſſeſſion of ten crores of rupees in money, with gold and ſilver bullion, and jewels to an incredible amount, with the peacock throne, and other riches, which Nadir Shah had depoſited in Kelat. He put to death all the ſons and grandſons of Nadir Shah, excepting Sharokh Mirza, the ſon of Reza Kuly Mirza, by a daughter of Sultan Huſſein. He appointed his own younger brother Ibrahim Khan, his viceroy.'

This volume is, upon the whole, well worthy of peruſal. Reſpecting the tranſlator, whatever may be his merit in the eaſtern languages, he does not in his own poſſeſs any conſiderable degree of taſte. His ſtyle is ſeldom elegant, and ſometimes ungrammatical.

ART.

ART. IX. *The Garden; or, The Art of laying out Grounds. Tranſlated from the French of the Abbé de Lille.* Small 8vo. 4s. Cadell. London, 1789.

IT is ſcarcely poſſible for the Engliſh critic, whoſe *amor patriæ* is extended to the literary fame of his country, to be more highly gratified than by this poem of the Abbé de Lille, and the reputation it has deſervedly obtained in France. Low and degraded as uninquiſitive prejudice may deem the preſent poetic genius of our iſle, we find that a neighbouring kingdom, celebrated for its refinement, and remarkable for the delicacy of its critical judgment, is ſo far from conſidering the Britiſh Parnaſſus as a barren wilderneſs, that, as from the pieria of the moſt revered antiquity, their favourite authors tranſplant, with eager induſtry, thoſe treaſures of beauty and of art, with a view to immortaliſe their names among their admiring countrymen. The aſſiſtance which M. de Lille has ſo copiouſly received from Gray, from Shenſtone, Maſon, and Thomſon, as well as from Pope, Milton, and others, he has not, however, been grateful enough to acknowledge; on the contrary, in his introduction, he boldly claims a garland where ſhall be found *no foreign ornament*. This is the more remarkable as the very title of his poem is an imitation of Maſon; and beſides whole pages copied from Gray, and innumerable imitations of Pope, &c. '*Les Jardins*' poſſeſſes but little of didactic merit which is not to be found in '*The Engliſh Garden.*' The Abbé does not very frequently favour us with any thing new in the preceptive way; and ſome of thoſe rules which are introduced into this poem without the authority of Mr. Maſon, and perhaps *all* which *controvert* his principles, tend only to prove that France is ſtill behind us in taſte and the chaſte ſimplicity of nature. In proof of this, beſides *daſhing the raging fountain to the ſkies*, we might quote many other paſſages of the work before us. Neither are the precepts in this work ſo various or determinate as thoſe which may be adduced from its Britiſh rival; while at the ſame time (though the poems differ but little in length) it does not diſplay equal embelliſhment. This perhaps is partly owing to the different conduct of the authors. The Abbé purſuing a plan leſs regular, naturally became more excurſive and diffuſe, and was conſequently in danger of ſuffering many precepts to eſcape which the claſſical arrangement of Mr. Maſon happily availed himſelf of. Much alſo is to be attributed to the declamatory genius, or (if we may hazard the expreſſion) the playful loquacity of Gallic fancy.

The preſent performance is nevertheleſs worthy of peruſal; not only for the opportunity it gives of comparing the ſentiments of two rival countries in an obvious point of view, but alſo for the intrinſic merit of the two performances.

The tranſlator profeſſes to make *a free tranſlation*; and he has, with judgment, omitted ſome conceits which did no credit to their author. If the idea of the two currents running a race, and 'diſputing the doubting prize,' with ſome other reprehenſible paſſages, had been alſo rejected, perhaps the reader of taſte would not have lamented the loſs. The language is flowing and poetical, the verſification generally eaſy and melodious, and the pauſes are regulated with an equal attention to ſmoothneſs and variety; neither is the harmony interrupted with unpleaſant triplets. The punctuation is incorrect, and ſometimes we meet with mere apologies for rhime, as *ſcene* and *ſeen*, *conſole* and *ſoul*, *ſevere* and *revere*, &c. Theſe are not rhimes but echoes; and the following are neither verſe nor proſe:

> 'Art then the rebel nature may ſub*due*,
> But ſhe to grandeur muſt his triumph *owe*.'

And,

> 'The paths whoſe happy guidance we pur*ſue*
> Should ornament the proſpects which they *ſhew*,' &c.

We are alſo at times preſented with proſaic lines:

> 'Which e'en the awe-ſtruck hand of time doth ſpare.'
>
> 'The eye a vaſt extent of lake would trace,
> *Yet now and then it aſks a reſting-place.*'
>
> '*Alas! I've never rov'd thoſe vales among,*
> Where Virgil whilom tun'd his ſacred ſong;
> But by the bard I ſwear, and lay ſublime,
> *I'll go! O'er Alps on Alps oppos'd I'll climb,*
> Full of his name, with all his frenzy fir'd,
> *And there I'll read the ſtrains thoſe ſcenes inſpir'd.*'

We ſhall quote alſo the exordium:

> 'Now ſpring returns, and o'er the dewy vale,
> While ev'ry bloſſom breathes to ev'ry gale;
> And many a bird on many a budding ſpray
> Warbles reſponſive *each to other's lay;*
> While *others* wake the ſhriller trump of fame
> To deathleſs deeds of high heroic name;
> Bid conqueſt drive along the *walks* of war
> Her ſteeds of thunder, and her crimſon car:
> Or call up Atreus and the brother gueſt
> To all the horrors of the fatal feaſt;

Say,

Say, Who may touch aright the rural reed?
Aye, well I ween, or on the flow'ry mead,
Or up the ſunny hill, or 'neath the grove,
That ſmiles with happy hope, or happier love:
There are, who fondly feel the vernal hour
When Flora ſmiles; there are from bloomy bow'r,
Who love to look at Nature's various flore,
As ſtill enchanting art with ſweeteſt lore,
Winding o'er hill and dale, o'er mound and *mead,*
Diſplays the flow'rs and turf, the waves and ſhade.'

The 12th and 13th lines are imitations of Gray; but for theſe M. de Lille only is accountable.

We give the following lines as a ſpecimen of the performance:

——'And now the gale
Bleak whiſtling robs the grove, and ſtrews the vale,
While oft, who ſtrays beneath in penſive mood,
Starts at the leaf that ruſtles from the wood.
But ah! my ſoul enjoys the dying year,
I drop the ſadly ſympathiſing tear
When nature mourns; and in my woe-worn heart,
When memory probes ſome wound with double ſmart,
Oh! how I love the with'ring waſte to tread,
When all the verdure of the year is fled!
Adieu! O folly, mirth, and glee adieu!
Come, melancholy come, nor let me rue
Thy ſpirit ſad, but ſoft; nor in the ſhroud
Of ſpleen ſtill kerchieſt in a gloomy cloud,
But half-unveil'd, as oft th' autumnal day
Sheds on the vaporous air a ſofter ray,
Penſive thy mien, mild thy dejected air,
And gliſt'ning in each eye the ſtarting tear.'

The romantic deſcriptions which the third book contains are particularly delightful; and the epiſode of Petrarch and Laura, with which it concludes, is pathetic.

This publication, though, upon the whole, not correct, is elegant and pleaſing.

ART. X. *Miſerio's Viſion; a Poem.* 4to. 1s. Norwich printed. Baldwin, London. No Date.

SOMEBODY, we know not *who*, is introduced we know not *how*, deſcribing a place without a name, we know not *where*, as a 'ſecond Eden;'

——'Sea, land, and ſky conſpire
To paint this ſpot for all the world t'admire:
Yet not *theſe* ſcenes proclaim the reign of bliſs.'

The author, however, a few lines further on, flatly contradicts this, and tells us

' ——— *This* happy country round
Seems Eden all, ſeems all enchanted ground;'

and paints the inhabitants in the full enjoyment of all they can deſire. This unknown and nameleſs perſonage '*amazed*,' we ſuppoſe at ſo uncommon a ſtate of things, aſks

——— ' What bounteous hand
Sow'd joys and plenty over all the land.'

'*Miſerio*, all reply.' He wiſhes to ſee this 'glorious man;' and his abode being pointed out to him, he tells us 'hither 'ſtraight I ran.' But, contrary to his expectation, and ours too, he finds him a moſt wretched melancholy wight, incapable of any enjoyment, becauſe 'Amelia's gone away;'—do not miſtake him, reader, as we did; he does not mean *eloped*, but gone to her long home. He then tells his viſitor how happy he and his Amelia were, how they uſed to play with Poll and Chloe (the parrot and lapdog), and how he uſed to lead her 'to hear 'the billows roar 'midſt *drawling* ſtones;' with many other things equally grave and pathetic. At laſt, having finiſhed his *would-be* intereſting ſtory, he begs the ſtranger to 'weep for 'pity o'er his widow'd life.' At that moment he is ſtruck dumb with aſtoniſhment and terror by a dreadful earthquake, accompanied by thunder and lightning. In the midſt of this elementary convulſion, the viſitor diſplays a pair of wings, and is converted into a very ſplendid angel. He gives Miſerio very good advice; tells him to 'learn patience,' and fear God; and, having executed his commiſſion, returns to heaven:

' The angel ſpoke, and back like lightning flies,
Shoots paſt the blinded ſun, and flames along the ſkies.'

The reader all this time does not ſuſpect that he has been reading a dream; but ſo it is, for the author immediately after ſays,

' Miſerio trembling *wakes* in wild amaze—
'Twas all a *dream*.'

The intelligent public will ſee by this analyſis how miſerably defective the author is in the conſtruction of his ſtory; the diction is equally faulty. Now and then, amidſt every ſpecies of bad compoſition, ſomething like poetry appears; of this kind is the couplet we laſt quoted; the ſun *blinded* by the ſuperior blaze of the heavenly meſſenger is a thought that would not diſgrace the moſt genuine votary of the muſes.

ART.

ART. XI. *Henry and Acaſto; a Moral Tale. By the Rev. Brian Hill; with a Preface by Sir Richard Hill.* Small 8vo. London, 1789.

PERSONS of a melancholy temper have generally a diſpoſition to religion, love, and to poetry. Theſe three *accompliſhments*, for the moſt part, centre in the ſame perſon; the lover is poetical, the poet is amorous, and the ſaint both; witneſs the pſalmiſt David. Perhaps, upon a chemical analyſis of the mind, it would be found that religious, poetical, and amorous enthuſiaſm are but different directions of the ſame principle; as the object of all is confeſſedly the ſame, an *inviſible and ideal beauty*, which Nature hath not thought proper to realiſe in this ſublunary world, and which is the mere creation of the mind in which it reſides. Theſe three expanſions of the mind, devotion, ſentimental love, and poetry, conſtitute the pureſt and moſt rapturous pleaſures of life, and are only expoſed to one mortification, that human nature cannot ſupport them for any length of time. The expreſſions of them too, in writing or diſcourſe, furniſh the moſt agreeable morſels of literary entertainment. Madame Guion's *ſhort way*, her *torrents*, and her Commentary on the Song of Solomon; Rouſſeau's Eloiſe, and Thomſon's Seaſons, preſent an entertainment of the ſame kind, and are equally pleaſing to an elegant taſte. Unfortunately, however, the moſt precious works of nature as well as of art are frequently counterfeited; and in the currency of the literary world there are at leaſt ten counterfeits for one ſterling coin. Whether the work before us belongs to the former or the latter deſcription will appear from the ſequel.

After ſome vague and trite deſcriptions of rural ſcenes, in which there is an equal regard ſhewn to grammar, propriety, and poetry, our author tells us that a certain old gentlewoman called Autumna

> 'Had nine times ſpread her golden ſtore
> [Anglice, that nine years had revolved]
> Since *pious* Anna felt a mother's throes,
> And the firſt light on Henry's *head* aroſe.'

The epithet *pious*, annexed to Anna in conſequence of her amours, will ſurpriſe thoſe critics who admire the propriety of Virgil, who, though he generally diſtinguiſhes his hero by the appellation of the 'pious Eneas,' reduces him to 'Dux Tro-'janus' when he met with Dido in a cave to celebrate the myſteries of Venus. But if ſuch critics attend to the analogy that we have pointed out between religion and love, they will ſee the propriety of this epithet.

'Since the firſt light on Henry's *head* aroſe;'

other authors would have ſaid, 'Since Henry firſt ſaw the 'light;' or,

'Since the firſt light on Henry's *eyes* aroſe.'

But our author very properly mentions the head, as this *old* light was a type of that *new light* which was afterwards to enter his head—through a crack in his ſcull.

When Henry the hero of our author had thus attained his ninth year, a venerable old gentleman called Acaſto deſired him to take a walk in a fine ſummer's morning, which is thus deſcribed:

'Soon as the larks their early ſong *begun*, [Anglice began]
And thouſand cobwebs floated in the ſun.'

While they were thus '*quaffing* freſh breezes of the pureſt air,' Acaſto began to moraliſe, or rather to preach, in a very ſingular manner. A perſon whoſe devotion was founded on reaſon, and enlightened by philoſophy, would have led his pupil from the beauties of nature before his eyes, to the wiſdom, goodneſs, and power of the Deity, the original ſource of the order and happineſs which prevails in the world. Inſtead of this Acaſto puts the query to Henry, that, if he was to die that morning, what ſort of figure he would make at the day of judgment? and adviſes him to beware of fancy, for

'By fancy led adventurous Adam fell.'

We have always underſtood, both from Moſes, and from Milton (who is the better poet of the two), that Adam *fell* from a fond and fooliſh complaiſance to his wife and the devil; but we are happy to be corrected in our opinion. After this, in the common methodiſtical cant, Acaſto makes overtures to Henry for his converſion, which, after ſome murmurs and remonſtrances from *reaſon* and ſelf, were humbly received, and Henry was converted, like a good boy, in the *ninth* year of his age.

Being thus fairly *regenerated*, he very naturally began to inquire about his *generation*. He obſerved to Acaſto that 'the 'lambkins had ewes for their mothers; that the thruſhes and 'blackbirds fed their half-fledged young; and that his ſchool-'fellows too had both fathers and mothers, while he was entirely 'ignorant of his origin;' probably believing that he had ſprung from a cabbage-ſtock. Acaſto then told him that he was *his* grandſon by a daughter; and that both his father and mother were dead and rotten long ago. It is a little ſingular that he had never told him this before; but grandfathers have their fancies! The death of his father and mother, according to Acaſto, was followed

followed by a *general mourning*, not in the court, nor among their friends and relations, but through all nature:

'A ſolemn gloom *beſpread* the fertile vale;'

which is explained in the next line,

'Night o'er the land her ſable curtain drew,
And *duſky* tents on all creation threw.
And as with ſympathetic *feelings wrung*,
A *teary* drop on every bloſſom hung.'

The moon too went into mourning:

'The pallid *liſtning* moon, with quivering light,
But half unveils her waning watery *ſight*,
Hears the ſad tale, and ſtruck with ſorrow deep,
Behind ſome friendly cloud retires to *weep*.'

The *unfeeling* ſtars, however, ſtruck up a *concert*, and made an illumination on the occaſion:

'Whilſt the fair ſtars attendant on their queen,
In *concert* join, and twinkle o'er the green.'

Sir Richard Hill tells us in his preface that the publication of this poem was without the knowledge and againſt the conſent of his brother, the author. Theſe *meretricious* airs of *modeſty* are as well known, and have become as ridiculous among authors, as the common complaints about ſeduction and rapes among a certain claſs of females, where, in nine caſes out of ten, the ſeduction and the rape originate with the complainer.

ART. XII. *Love in the Eaſt; or, Adventures of Twelve Hours: a Comic Opera, in Three Acts. Written by the Author of the Strangers at Home. As performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury-Lane.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Lowndes. London, 1788.

IT is with regret that we obſerve the triumph of comic opera over genuine comedy; but it is a natural effect of the *indolence* of luxury. As the Romans degenerated, their theatrical repreſentations gradually dwindled into pantomime; the enervated mind was fatigued with the ſmalleſt exertion, and could be pleaſed only through the medium of the *eye*. From the ſame cauſe we ſacrifice ſenſe to ſound, and liſtleſsly doſe over muſical notes. As the callow bird can only open its beek to receive food, its ſole enjoyment, ſo the only inlet to pleaſure which remains to us is the *ear*. To reliſh ſenſe, wit, or humour, requires

requires intellectual exertion, and the energies of mind are now too laborious to give delight.

This depraved taſte naturally induces writers for the ſtage to decline the more difficult taſk of ſterling comedy. They content themſelves with tacking together a few ſcenes as a vehicle for the more important part of the production, the *muſic*; and ſhould only two or three of the ſongs happen to take, the piece has a run, and the author is amply rewarded.

The ſcene of the opera now before us lies in Calcutta. Warnford pays his addreſſes to Ormellina the ſuppoſed ward, but real daughter, of Colonel Bentley, who whimſically conceals the relation he bears to her, leſt he ſhould ſpoil her by overfondneſs. Yet this expedient anſwers ſo ill, that his paternal tenderneſs is miſtaken for amorous attachment, and it is ſuſpected, from various circumſtances, that he means to marry his ſuppoſed ward. The whole ambiguity is, however, at laſt cleared up, and the lovers are made happy. There is another plot carrying on at the ſame time. Eliza, under the diſguiſe of Mr. M'Proteus, a Scotchman, comes to Calcutta in ſearch of her lover, Mr. Stanmore. This couple too, after the uſual manœuvres, are landed in the haven of matrimony. The intrigues of Mrs. Muſhroom, her quarrels with her huſband, the gallantries of old Colonel Baton, a Frenchman, who thinks every woman in love with him, and is himſelf an univerſal lover, with the droll embarraſſments of Twiſt a tailor, fill up the reſt of the canvas.

As a ſpecimen both of the dialogue and poetry, we lay the following ſcene before the public:

'SCENE, *The Garden-Room belonging to Colonel* Bentley's *Houſe.*'

'*Enter Colonel* Bentley *and* Stanmore.

'*Bent.* It does not ſignify talking, Stanmore; I will not diſcover to Ormellina that ſhe is my daughter. I love the ſlut ſo well, that I muſt not let her know it.

'*Stan.* And ſo, Sir, you will ſtill continue the impoſition of letting her ſuppoſe ſhe is an orphan, ſupported and educated by your bounty.

'*Bent.* Certainly. It is that happy ignorance of her birth which has ſaved her from the ill effects of my fondneſs; for I am ſure if I had once owned her for my daughter, I ſhould certainly have ſpoiled her. You know, Stanmore, I am one of thoſe fools who are vulgarly called good-natured people, and who find themſelves involved in a thouſand difficulties, merely becauſe they can't ſay *no* to any thing.

'*Stan.* Yes, I know that is your infirmity.

'*Bent.* Whenever a man wanted to borrow a few guineas, which he never meant to repay, Jack Bentley was the man applied to; and I had the excluſive privilege of being pigeon'd by my friends, merely becauſe I was the beſt creature in the world. However, I ſoon found it was a damn'd misfortune to be ſo agreeable; ſo I e'en parted with

my

my character to ſave my money, and affronted my acquaintance to prevent my being obliged to quit ſociety.

'*Stan.* Ay, there it is, now.—What a pity that good-nature, like the dreſs of an officer in battle, ſhould be only a dangerous mark of diſtinction for the enemy to aim at.

'*Bent.* How often have I envied poor Sam Sulky! He was a happy fellow—bleſt with the worſt temper I ever knew, and had the fineſt forbidding frown—never lent a man a ſhilling in his life—nobody praiſed him, and he praiſed nobody—ſo he grew rich becauſe people did not like his company well enough to ruin him.

'*Stan.* Ah, Colonel! you would not have changed places with him for all that—your natural diſpoſition——

'*Bent.* For heaven's ſake, Stanmore, don't betray me by calling me a good-natur'd man.—Do act the part of a friend—and abuſe me behind my back.

'*Stan.* Here comes Mr. Warnford.

'*Bent.* For his anſwer, I ſuppoſe.—He aſk'd my conſent yeſterday to marry Ormellina.

'*Stan.* Well, Sir; and——

'*Bent.* And I mean to try the force of his attachment by leaving him a little while in ſuſpence——But he is here.

'*Enter* Warnford.

'*Warn.* My dear colonel, I rejoice to ſee you.—Mr. Stanmore, yours.—I read your conſent to my marrying Ormellina in your countenance.

'*Bent.* He who believes all he reads, young man, muſt be often wofully miſtaken,

'*Warn.* I cannot be miſtaken here, Sir—I depend on my author—Nature has traced benevolence and good-humour in every feature; and her characters have not been defaced by malice or hypocriſy.

'*Bent.* Sir, you do me a great deal of honour to fancy my face a gazette extraordinary of good news to you. But I ſay again that you are miſtaken; I am not benevolent—I am ill-temper'd, Sir, and moroſe; and as for all the ſilly cant of lovers, I conſider it as the half-form'd dialogue of children, an abuſe of language, which they correct as they grow older.

'*Warn.* It is the language of my heart, Sir; and while that heart beats ſuch muſt be its effuſions.

'*Bent.* And ſo I am to infer from all this that if I refuſe my conſent you will run away with the girl.

'*Warn.* Why look ye, colonel—I will not anſwer for myſelf—if Ormellina will agree to it.

'*Bent.* [*aſide*] A fine fellow, i'faith!—[*to him*] This is beyond bearing, Warnford.

'*Warn.* Nay, I predict that you will forgive me. You have a friend who will infallibly make my peace with you—a conſtant friend, to whom you now owe ſome of your happieſt moments.

'*Bent.* Eh!—what friend do you mean?

'*Warn.* The remembrance of what you were at my age—I'll be hang'd if you would not have done the ſame thing.

'*Bent.*

'*Bent.* No, no—indeed no, Warnford—though, to be ſure, at your age, I did not want for fire.

'*Warnf.* You were in love, Sir?

'*Bent.* In love!—Who could have ſeen my dear Sophia, without loving her? Oh, Warnford! ſuch a pair of eyes! ſuch a winning ſmile!—But I am a vile hand at deſcription——I ſhall never forget when ſhe got into the chaiſe to elope with me.

'*Warnf.* You eloped with her then, Sir?

'*Bent.* Aye, my boy.

'*Warnf.* Her guardian had refuſed his conſent?

'*Bent.* Pſhaw! What ſignifies that?

'*Warnf.* Bravo, Colonel Bentley;—and ſo, glowing with youth, love, and high ſpirits, you aſſerted the privilege of a lover, and ſnatch'd a fine girl from the tyranny of caprice, as I would do now.

'*Bent.* Eh!—Snatch a fine girl!—Caprice! Why, what the devil, I muſt explain myſelf, Warnford.

'*Warnf.* The voice of Nature needs no explanation, Sir.

AIR. WARNFORD.

The guardian, dear Sir, or, if you would rather,
Suppoſe, if you pleaſe, 'tis the young lady's father,
Capricious,
Avaricious,
Shuns the fond lover's ſuit,
And with frowns ſtrikes him mute.

Pray give me leave, Sir, my tale to purſue:
Well, what's to be done?
The lady's in tears,
The lover diſtracted;
Such mad pranks are acted,
Till love interferes,
And cries, off you muſt run:
Dear Sir, remember, 'twas once ſo with you.

As ſubjects, you know, to Cupid's dominion,
All lovers muſt bow to their ſov'reign's opinion:
From laws ſo delightful, ſay, who can depart?
The laws of a monarch, whoſe throne is the heart.
Huſh! huſh! remember, 'twas once ſo with you.

The picture is yours, Sir, the likeneſs is juſt,
And, though painted too young, that you'll pardon, I truſt;
Like you, I the dictates of Nature purſue:
Huſh! huſh! remember, 'twas once ſo with you.

[*Exit.*

'*Bent.* Zounds! Stanmore, why didn't you ſtop me, when you ſaw me expoſing myſelf ſo? The dog took me unawares, and unfortunately ſurpriſed me into a fit of good-humour. He is a fine high-mettled fellow, faith.

'*Stan.*

'*Stan.* Perhaps, Sir, you may find him too much ſo.—You know he has given you fair warning of his intention to run away with Ormellina; and I think your only chance for preventing him, is, to own her publicly as your daughter immediately.

In this ſpecies of compoſition, Mr. Cobb is not to be placed in the firſt rank, but he has many below him.

ART. XIII. *Letters on Love, Marriage, and Adultery, addreſſed to the Right Honourable the Earl of Exeter.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ridgeway. London, 1789.

THE Author addreſſes his performance to the noble Earl as forming a part of the legiſlation of his country, and for other reaſons which it is not neceſſary to repeat.

Writers, who have blended metaphyſics with morals, may for the moſt part be divided into two claſſes. Thoſe who write for the world as it now is, and thoſe who, conſidering a ſtate of nature as the moſt deſirable, are perpetually multiplying the diſadvantages and embarraſſments of a ſtate of civil ſociety. The latter having engaged on their ſide the gloomy eloquence of every diſappointed ſcholar, and the manifold inconveniences attending a ſtate of nature being unknown becauſe unfelt, it has not been difficult to make us forget all the charms of poliſhed ſociety and refined taſte, while every trifling embarraſſment is exaggerated. But is it the means of increaſing happineſs to make us fancy our ſituation wretched; or are we likely to accommodate ourſelves the better to what we are told is neceſſarily miſerable? Let the barbarous deſpiſer of refinement ſeclude himſelf from a community he is unfit to aſſociate with, and mix with thoſe whoſe whole enjoyment conſiſts in ſatisfying the immediate cravings of nature; or let him teach us how to improve ſociety, inſtead of diſguſting us with it.

The author of the Letters before us ſeems to entertain an idea that a ſtate of refinement may be brought much nearer to a ſtate of nature than we now ſee it, and that in proportion as it is, ſo will be the happineſs of individuals. It muſt be confeſſed that in moſt political inſtitutions, as reſtraints have been multiplied, they have not uncommonly miſſed of their deſign; and that in ſcience, in proportion as we render it complicated, we get further from the truth. How far this may be the caſe in modelling the interior arrangements of private life, it is not eaſy to determine; but the great inconvenience of the trial, is, the ſlow progreſs of all innovations from the difficulty that attends their adoption, the uncertainty of their gaining any ground, and the too general obloquy in which the propoſers feel themſelves involved. This ſhould not, however, deter philoſophers from pointing out thoſe errors which they conceive to be the

cauſes of unhappineſs, or from uſing every means of improving the ſtate of mankind.

'Tis evident our author writes with this view. In the firſt part of his work, containing the Letters on Love, he enters too elaborately, for the brevity he affects, into the origin of ſociety, the cauſes of its early corruptions, and of their continuance in a ſtate in which we ſhould expect, with greater refinement, more rational and juſter notions of things. Though we every where diſcover much learning, a conſiderable depth of thought, and a great deſire to do good, we cannot help thinking much more is required to eſtabliſh our author's opinions than what he has advanced. Without entering into his hiſtorical or poetical detail of the progreſs of female influence, we ſhall, in general, obſerve that the great cauſe of all the miſeries of life are, in our author's opinion, the abſurd reſtraint laid by legiſlators and parents on the wiſhes of the younger branches of the community, whoſe whole education, he conceives, inſtead of teaching the prudential notions of modern economy, ſhould be to inſtruct children how to form a juſt judgment in their connexions, and to act with propriety in the married ſtate. To the reſtraints above-mentioned, our author imputes that gallantry which is ſo much complained of, and which we in vain endeavour to reſtrain. Love, he complains, being deprived of its natural channel, vents itſelf thus. But having once loſt the proper track, it in vain endeavours to recover itſelf, and ſubſtitutes the momentary gratification of the ſenſes to that permanent enjoyment which ariſes from the voluntary and rational union of the ſexes. In this part our author takes ſome pains to rectify a miſconception in language, which, without offering our opinion on the ſubject, we ſhall give in his own words:

'Feeling is the inſtrument of experience; reaſon is the guide of life. For the ſenſibility being exerciſed by error as well as by truth, it may lead us to vices as well as to virtues; and it cannot afford a rule to be depended on, like the voice of reaſon, ſuggeſted by circumſtances relating to the whole of life, or to the general intereſt of man.

'Sentiment, however, is the principle of gallantry:—reaſon is the principle of love. I mean, that perſons diſtinguiſhed by gallantry, are influenced merely by ſentiment; they ſeek pleaſure in any of its forms, and their object is immediate gratification: while thoſe who are united by affection, ſeek the direction of reaſon, to guard, multiply, and perpetuate their ſatisfaction. The diſtinction of brutes and men, is that of ſentiment and reaſon. Brutes are all ſentimental; they are governed by feeling, or the ſimple recollection of feeling. Their ſyſtem is that of gallantry, ſeeking the repetition of pleaſureable ſentiment, without proviſion for the intervals of ſtrong impreſſions.

'That

'That ſentiment is not the rule of life in the commerce of men and women, we may preſume from obſerving thoſe who adopt it among the moſt wretched of mankind. A life conſiſting of ſmall portions occupied by lively ſenſations, and great portions occupied by diſguſt, regret, wearineſs, and apprehenſion, is extremely miſerable. Men and women of gallantry, have never pretended to be happy. The intervals of their pleaſurable ſenſations;—ſolitude, reflection, and reaſon; torture them even in apprehenſion: yet they neceſſarily occupy the greater portion of their lives. Their ſtudy, therefore, is to ſhorten the intervals of ſentiment; and to vary and multiply the moſt poignant emotions. The moſt conſummate ſkill in this matter will not anſwer the purpoſe: for pleaſures cloy by frequent repetition; and ſtrong emotions debilitate conſtitutions moſt ſuſceptible of them: they haſten decrepitude and death; objects of perpetual terror to men of ſentiment and pleaſure.'

That there is much truth in our author's obſervations, no one can doubt; but in this as in moſt other caſes, it is much more eaſy to ſhow the inconveniences of a ſyſtem than to form a new one. If it be true that we can frequently trace the cauſes of unhappy marriages from early reſtraint, do we not often ſee ſuch as have been left to their uncontrolled choice, and have formed early connexions, grow ſatiated or diſſatisfied; and from cauſes we can only trace to the imperfection of human nature and human happineſs. To this if we add the abſolute neceſſity of ſubmitting in ſome degree to the cuſtoms of the ſociety we live in, we truſt it will be found that many of our author's opinions require a longer and more regular deduction of argument than he has uſed to ſupport them. We are, however, ready to give him, and every one, who, like himſelf, writes with the nobleſt intention—that of promoting the happineſs of the world, all the credit due to ſuch laudable views; and we ſcruple not to affirm, that it is impoſſible to peruſe the work before us, without being diſpoſed to doubt many long admitted prejudices.

In his Letter on Marriage, our author is very eloquent on the happineſs to be expected from the voluntary and rational union of the ſexes, and treats the life of Libertiniſm and Gallantry with the contempt it deſerves. Much of this is however anticipated in the former letters. In the preſent we could wiſh he had been more explicit in one part of his ſubject; for though we are ready to admit the impropriety, the indelicacy, and, if he pleaſes, the wickedneſs, of forming connexions without genuine attachment, yet when formed, it requires ſomething more than declamatory hints to convince us that the preſent ſtate of ſociety would be mended by the too eaſy diſſolution of them. If this is our author's opinion as a philoſopher, he ſhould not be aſhamed of avowing it; and as a moral writer, ſhould have been more explicit in his language, and more induſtrious in pointing out the means of removing the evil.

On

On the ſubject of Adultery the author enforces more than ever the impropriety of parents forcing the inclinations of their children, and traces from this cauſe all the evils ariſing from ſubſequent infidelity. Here we cannot help thinking the picture too highly charged. The practice is ſo far from univerſal, that it can hardly be called general for parents to uſe any reſtraints, particularly in forcing their children into improper connexions. We can, however, almoſt excuſe the author's warmth, when it produces the following very ingenious, and, in many reſpects, novel remarks.

'But under the management of bad parents or avaricious relations, the crimes of incontinency and adultery become probable and neceſſary *conſequences*, not only when young perſons are forced to unite themſelves contrary to their inclinations; but when to avoid ſuch violence, they are obliged to have recourſe to ſecret correſpondences or clandeſtine marriages. Stolen matches are ſeldom happy; for very good reaſons. The parties have not opportunities to become ſufficiently acquainted with each other; their connexions are perhaps owing to the dread of being forced into ſituations they deteſt, and cemented by reſiſtance or ill-uſage. There is a charm to young and generous minds in being fellow ſufferers, which forms an attachment or affection, very eaſily miſtaken for love. All their correſpondence and commerce are carried on in that kind of hurry or obſcurity, which is ever unfavourable to judgment or choice. We accordingly ſee men and women hazarding every thing for each other, on a ſlight ſecret or ſtolen acquaintance; and when marriage gives them leiſure to behold what they have done; to conſider or know each other; they are aſtoniſhed at their folly, and driven by deſpair into the exceſſes of profligacy.

'Yet the imprudence itſelf would not be ſo fatal, if an indifference or diſregard to truth, a habit of inſincerity, artifice, and intrigue, were not formed by the neceſſity of ſecret correſpondence. A woman, who will be prevailed upon to deceive her parents, may be prevailed upon to deceive her huſband; and a man who takes pains to teach her that art, is deſtitute of the eſſential requiſites to conjugal happineſs: he never can have *her* confidence; he has undermined the foundation of her fidelity, and he has furniſhed the ſecret and the inclination to betray him. They who marry by intrigue, often fix the habits of inſincerity or artifice ſo deeply in their minds, that intrigues become neceſſary; they loſe all taſte for pleaſures, which are the reſult of natural or honourable affections; and reliſh none but ſuch as are purchaſed by ſome wretched artifice, or ſnatched from ſome hazardous and alarming ſituation.

The art of conducting intrigues, or of hazarding and eſcaping the dangers attending them, is very ſimilar to the art of war. Both are unnnatural in their principles or objects; both conſiſt of ſtratagems or hazards, which create quick ſucceſſions of lively ſenſations; and both have charms to ſimilar minds.

'Indeed it is remarkable, the ſame vitiated taſte, and the ſame mediocrity of genius, which lead to the profeſſion of a ſoldier, gene-

rally

rally ſeek happineſs in the little artifices or perils of intrigue. Women of lively imaginations, with ſufficient talents to be vain of them, and unfurniſhed by education with the eſſential principles of goodneſs, are dazzled or enamoured of theſe artificial but brilliant characters; and eaſily adopt the ſpirit and artifice which render them proper counterparts to them.

'Here we ſee vice become an art; and we know there is a kind of gratification in practiſing any art of which we are in poſſeſſion. Hence many of thoſe deviations; thoſe adventures apparently capricious, for which it is ſo difficult to account. It is not uncommon for a man or woman to hazard reputation, peace, or life, for a connexion, which is no ſooner made, than it loſes its charm, and the parties fly to new hazards in purſuit of new objects.'

While we feel ourſelves diſpoſed to admit the truth of theſe remarks, we cannot help regretting they ſhould be blended, like moſt of the reſt, with that kind of reaſoning by illuſtration, which ought never to be admitted in moral or metaphyſical ſubjects. Our author having in his *Letters on Love* anticipated many things on this part of his ſubject, chiefly inſiſts here, that the general cauſes of female failings, are the previous infidelity of a huſband, or his declining thoſe attentions by which he firſt gained the attachment of his wife, and which every woman has a right to, and expects. There is juſtice in this, and moſt of our author's other remarks; and we could only wiſh he would conſider himſelf as writing to legiſlators, philoſophers, &c. thoſe who have the moſt influence on ſociety: and that on theſe occaſions, order, perſpicuity, and arrangement, ſhould not be ſacrificed to brilliancy and declamation.

Art. XIV. *FOREIGN LITERATURE.*

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

THE premium that the Royal Society of Copenhagen had propoſed laſt year in reſpect to the moſt eaſy and expeditious method of determining longitude by means of eclipſes of the ſun, and the occultation of ſtars behind the moon, was aſſigned to Signor Cagnoli, perpetual Secretary of the Academy of Agriculture, Commerce, and Arts, at Verona, member of the academy of Padua, and of the inſtitute of Bologne. The queſtions propoſed for the preſent year are the following:

1. Hypotheſin Crawfordianam in calore corporum inſenſibili, et latente curatius examinare, expoſitis argumentis tam pro ea, quam contra eam militantibus.

2. Data loci latitudine, et longitudine, declinationem acus magneticæ in utroque Lemiſphaerio determinare, et curſas, quæ declinationes magneticas exhibent, ducere.

3. Utrum ſyſtema feudale, quod tamdiu in Europa univerſa viguit, tantumque in ſtatu ejus publico conſtituendo momentum habuit,

habuit, incidente proximis poſt Chriſtum natum ſæculis migratione gentium a populis borealibus ad meridionales pervenerit, an vero ſubſecutis demum temporibus ad horum exemplum in ſeptentrionem introductum ſit.

The premium for the perſon who ſhall write the beſt treatiſe on the above-mentioned ſubjects will be a gold medal of the value of a hundred Daniſh crowns. They muſt be written either in Latin, French, German, or the Daniſh tongue, and addreſſed, poſt paid, to Signor Jacobi, perpetual ſecretary of the ſociety, before the end of June 1790.

ART. XV. *Saggio Ragionato ſulla Origine ad Eſſenza dell' Architettura Civile. Napoli*, 1789.

ART. XV. *Eſſay on the Origin and Nature of Civil Architecture. Naples*, 1789.

IN the firſt part of the work the author treats of the origin of architecture, and gives us a regular hiſtory of the art, beginning from the Egyptians, among whom are found the principles of the beautiful Grecian ſtyle of architecture. He then proceeds to the Greeks and Romans; examines the two different epochs of the Gothic ſtyle; places the revival of the art in the 14th and 15th centuries; mentions the three great Italian luminaries of architecture, Brunneleſchi, Bramante, and Palladio; notices the cauſes of the decline of the art in the 17th century; and, laſtly, demonſtrates the progreſs it has made in the 18th. In the ſecond part he eſtabliſhes the eſſential principles of architecture, founded on convenience and ſtability, which are the end and object of the art; determines the propriety of beautiful arthitectonick proportions, as derived from the general beauty of nature, which conſiſts in the threefold combination, grandeur, unity, and variety; applies this theory to the principal conſtituent parts of architecture; examines the different ornaments that may enter into their compoſitions; their qualities, end, and the manner in which they may be employed; and concludes with a chain of arguments in oppoſition to thoſe who think that there is no eſſential beauty in the arts, but that all depends on faſhion and caprice. This work is worthy of the philoſophical age in which we live; ſince the author, far from being perverted by national prejudices, or thoſe of education, ſetting himſelf above all authority, and guided by reaſon and good ſenſe alone, endeavours to eſtabliſh the fundamental principles of architecture upon a ſolid and durable baſe, proper for all times and all nations, unalterable by caprice, opinion, or faſhion. This work ſeems to fix the taſte of architecture, and to ſerve as a criterion of the art. It ought therefore to be continually in the hands not only of thoſe who belong to ſo noble a profeſſion, but of all men of ſcience who intereſt themſelves in the progreſs of the art.

MONTHLY

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

For JANUARY 1789.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. 16. *The Belle Widows; with characteristic Sketches of real Personages, and living Characters. A Novel, inscribed to the Beau Monde; with a Preface by the Editor of the Letters of Charlotte during her Connexion with Werter.* 2 vol. small 8vo. Kerby. London, 1789.

THOUGH not a work of genius, the Belle Widows is a tolerable novel. The characters are not uncommon, but correctly enough drawn; and, excepting a few slips, the language is sufficiently accurate. In the character of Crampton, who is intended for an honest, blunt oddity, the author has not succeeded; but has had wonderful success in contaminating the language of the book by introducing French expressions almost in every page. Had this been done in the dialogue part of the work, it might have sometimes passed for characteristic, but to introduce this motley jargon into the narrative part is unpardonable. It is rather unlucky, that, with all this ostentatious and absurd display of French, the author should have been ungrammatical in the very title, it should have been "Belles Widows."

It may gratify the curiosity of some readers to be informed that the *Belle Widows* is *said* to be the production of the celebrated Mrs. Rudd, alias Stewart. While that lady was confined in the Fleet-Prison in 1787, experiencing the misery of extreme want, she is said to have written this novel, then called "Vulgar Prejudice," to answer a private purpose. It has since been revised and corrected by the author of "Charlotte's Letters," The "Final Farewell," &c. who has ushered it into the world with a preface.

ART. 17. *The Cottage of Friendship; a Legendary Pastoral. By Sylviana Pastorella.* 12mo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Bew. London, 1788.

This little volume is more than an inoffensive production in one view, as it is tolerably written, and has an evident moral tendency; but it is faulty in painting manners which do not exist, and thus communicating to the youthful mind ideas which never can be realised.

ART. 18. *The Man of Benevolence.* 12mo. Printed for the Author, Hughes and Walsh. London, 1789.

The hero is an example of virtue, and of virtue which leads to happiness. There is an unaffected ease and simplicity in this production; the language is plain and the incidents natural; but much more is requisite to the composition of a good novel, and that *much more* we Reviewers seldom meet with.

ART. 19. *Poems on various Subjects. By Mrs. Rowson, author of the Inquisitor, &c.* 8vo. 3s. sewed. Robinsons. London, 1788.

Mrs. Rowson thus speaketh of herself in her poetical Dedication to Mrs. Johnson;——"being naturally fond of Fame," &c.

We agree in Opinion with Mrs. R. that she has not yet got half way up the hill; for none of her poems rise above, and most of them fall below, mediocrity.

ART. 20. *Remarks on the Nature of Pantomime.* 12mo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale. London, 1789.

The pantomime, it is well known, was a favourite entertainment with the ancients, among whom it appears to have been conducted with a degree of excellence and dramatic utility superior to its general estimation in modern times. The author of the Remarks has collected several particulars relative to the history of this species of entertainment; and afterwards gives an account of the ballet of Cupid and Psyche, with that of the curious allegory on which it is originally founded.

ART. 21. *The English Tavern at Berlin; a Comedy, in Three Acts.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Harlow. London, 1789.

This comedy consists of three acts, and has the appearance of being founded upon a domestic incident at the court of Prussia. We are justified in this conjecture when we find the great Frederic engaged in composing a quarrel between two of his pages, and in attending to the effusions of an eccentric tavern-keeper. Though we cannot entirely approve of the dramatic conduct by which his majesty is brought into such company, yet the dignity of the monarch is supported with propriety, and his humanity is placed not only in an amiable, but an interesting light.

ART. 22. *French Morality cut short; or, The Chance of attending a Seat at a Fire-Side: a Moral Dialogue. Translated from the French of M. D. Crebillon, Fils.* 12mo. 2s. Robinsons. London, 1789.

The work of the younger Crebillon, of which this is a translation, is rich in a vein of polite wit and agreeable vivacity; but being originally calculated to favour sentiments of gallantry inconsistent with the principles of virtue, it is liable to objection in many parts. The translator, therefore, has very properly omitted such passages as were likely to offend the delicacy of an English reader. With these retrenchments the dialogue is much improved in its tendency; and though neither the personages nor the subject of their conversation can prove in any high degree interesting, yet the attention is kept awake through the different scenes by the charm of colloquial flippancy, and it is, in the end, with some regret that we quit the company of the agreeable interlocutors.

ART. 23. *Zelia in the Desert; or, The Female Crusoe. Translated from the French.* 12mo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Forster. London, 1789.

Marvellous, dull, and often unintelligible.

ART. 24. *The Genders of the French Substantives alphabetically arranged, according to their Terminations. By B. Arleville.* 12mo. 1s. 6d. Philips. London, 1789.

To acquire a thorough knowledge of the genders, is one of the chief difficulties attending the study of the French language. Different

ferent rules for obviating this inconvenience have been delivered by grammarians; but besides their being liable to many exceptions, they are oppressive to the memory of learners. This author, therefore, has given a kind of dictionary containing all the terminations; at each of which, after specifying the exceptions, he gives a general rule for the gender of all such words as have the same termination. To render the work more useful, he has added Mr. Bridel's new table of articles, and likewise a table of the simple and compound tenses of verbs. On the whole, we think this manual calculated to facilitate, in a considerable degree, the acquisition of the French language.

MEDICAL.

ART. 25. *The History and Chemical Analysis of the Mineral Water lately discovered in the City of Gloucester. The various Diseases to which it is applicable considered; and the necessary Regulations for drinking it with Success ascertained and prescribed. By John Hemming, M. D.* 8vo. 1s. Hookham. London, 1789.

Dr. Hemming seems to have used much judicious precaution in analysing this water; which, according to his experiments, contains fixed air, calcareous earth, magnesia, and iron. He specifies the quantities of these different materials as they were found to exist; and afterwards considers the diseases in which this water may be of service. There appears to be a great similitude between it and those situated near the German Spa. But the only satisfactory proof of its virtues will be a fair trial of them; which, we doubt not, will soon be instituted.

ART. 26. *An Inquiry into the Copernican System, respecting the Motions of the Heavenly Bodies, wherein it is proved, in the clearest Manner, that the Earth has only her Diurnal Motion, and that the Sun revolves round the World; together with an Attempt to point out the only true Way whereby Mankind can receive any Benefit from the Study of the Heavenly Bodies. By John Cunningham.* 8vo. 2s. Parsons. London, 1789.

We had imagined that the truth of the Copernican system was so fully established upon the principles of astronomy, and so generally ratified by the concurring assent of the scientific world, that no attempt would ever more be made to shake the stability of its foundation. Mr. Cunningham, however, has thought proper to revive those obsolete doctrines which have been termed the Hutchinsonian philosophy, in which the motion of the sun round the earth is asserted upon the authority of the scriptures, as if it were necessary towards confirming the truth of those divine oracles, that even where they seem only to have accommodated the representation of the phænomena of nature to the common perceptions of mankind, they ought to be interpreted in a literal sense. This incongruous mode of prosecuting the knowledge of astronomy has been so often refuted, that it would be superfluous now to enter upon the task; besides, we must acknowledge that the doctrine of the present author is, in some particulars, unintelligible. He tells us, for instance, 'when the sun is in the equinox, to a person on the equator, beholding the sun in the

horizon, his antipode, and two more, one under each pole, theſe four would behold the ſun in the horizon at one and the ſame inſtant of time.' According to this theory, the ſun ought to be viſible at one and the ſame inſtant of time in every part of the earth's orbit. Until we receive an explanation of this paradox, we can attend no farther to Mr. Cunningham.

ART. 27. *Faulkner's Obſervations on Inſanity; with a Plan for the more ſpeedy and effectual Recovery of Inſane Perſons.* 8vo. 1s. Reynell. London, 1789.

The author of theſe Obſervations inveighs againſt the economy of private madhouſes, which he affirms to be, from intereſted motives, perverted to the purpoſe of preventing, rather than of accelerating, the cure of the unfortunate perſons for the reception of whom they are intended. An act of parliament was paſſed a few years ago authoriſing the royal college of phyſicians to elect five fellows of that body as commiſſioners for licenſing and inſpecting ſuch houſes, and impoſing a penalty on ſuch commiſſioners as ſhould, while in office, be intereſted in keeping any houſe for the reception of lunatics. This act, however, the preſent author obſerves, has not guarded ſufficiently againſt *all* the abuſes to which theſe houſes are liable; or it would not only have excluded commiſſioners, while in office, but at all times, from having any intereſt in ſuch houſes; and not only commiſſioners, but all medical people whatever. He affirms that it would be of great importance to amend this act by the addition of a clauſe exacting an oath from every phyſician, ſurgeon, &c. that he has no intereſt whatever in recommending a patient to any particular houſe, and for impoſing a ſevere penalty on thoſe who ſhould be found to have ſuch intereſt. As even poſſible abuſes deſerve to be guarded againſt by every check which the legiſlature can impoſe, the hints ſuggeſted by this author ſeem not unworthy of attention.

ART. 28. *Trial of Mr. Sykes for Crim Con. with Mrs. Parſlow.* 8vo. 2s. Ridgeway. London, 1789.

This trial may juſtly be conſidered as one of the moſt remarkable of the kind, in reſpect both of the particular aggravation of the defendant's guilt, and the importance of the verdict which was given againſt him. The ſpeech of Mr. Erſkine, counſel for the plaintiff, was animated with all the force of pathetic oratory; the charge of the lord chief juſtice correſponded with the pureſt ſentiments of equity and rectitude; while the jury, by awarding to the plaintiff the whole of the damages which he claimed, have ſet a ſalutary example for the future reſtraint of ſuch flagrant violations of moral duty.

For

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS

For JANUARY, 1790.

A SUMMARY REVIEW OF 1789.

THOUGH, in profecution of our plan, we have endeavoured to mark the principal events, and catch fomewhat of the features of every fucceeding month of the memorable year that has been juft clofed; we fhall, on this occafion, take a fummary review of 1789, and the fituation of affairs at the commencement of 1790.

The year 1789 exhibited, in the moft lively colours, the power of opinion and example over ftanding armies and the authority of eftablifhed governments; the rights of human nature recognifed and aflerted; armies of men refufing to be inftruments of arbitrary power, and doing homage to the genius of juftice; the fpirit of liberty beaming with pure and mild rays in the moft enlightened nation of Europe not many years ago enflaved by defpotical maxims and forms of government, and opinions and manners to which thofe maxims and forms gave birth; freedom burfting forth from France as from a centre, and enlarging her dominions on every fide; a murmur of indignant difcontent beginning to pervade the oppreffed fubjects of the moft arbitrary governments in Europe; a gleam of hope breaking in upon the ftave, and kings and emperors trembling on their thrones. Yet, fo complicated is the chain that connects human affairs, and fo various and intricate the relations of things, that the fame circumftances that gave liberty to fome countries contributed to diminifh it in a ftate that, in its formation and progrefs, has illuftrated with peculiar energy, the force of a fpirit of freedom. This event, we fhould bitterly deplore, if the general diffufion of knowledge, and the vicinity of free nations, did not fecure the people of the United Provinces againft any of thofe evils which might otherwife be apprehended from the increafed power of the Stadtholder.

FRANCE.

The King of France undoubtedly regarded the Compte de Vergennes as the great pillar of his power and glory, when he faw him extending his intrigues, and eftablifhing the influence of the court of Verfailles in almoft all the kingdoms and ftates of Europe, croffing the Atlantic, and diffevering North America from the Britifh empire. How limited are our views into fu-

turity, and how little are political revolutions under the control of human wiſdom! The active and provident policy of the French monarchy in emancipating the Anglo-Americans from the Britiſh government; in forming an alliance, by blood, with the houſe of Auſtria; in paying ſedulous court to the Empreſs of Ruſſia; in conniving at the joint attack of the Ruſſians and Auſtrians on the Turkiſh empire.—The policy of the French monarchy, in theſe and other meaſures, though carried on, to all appearance, with apparent ſucceſs, blindly laboured for its own fall. The influence of the American revolution on the minds of a quick, ſenſible, high-ſpirited, and enlightened nation, was ſuch as might have been expected, and it was indeed predicted. Men who fought for liberty abroad, naturally conceived that they had a right to enjoy it at home. The ſparks of freedom that every where had been ſcattered by the writings of Rouſſeau, Voltaire, Turgot, and other writers trained in the ſchool of Monteſquieu, the NEWTON of juriſprudence and all political economy, were kindled into a flame. An univerſal diffuſion of knowledge, and great refinement and mildneſs of manners, conſpired to effect a civil revolution in favour of liberty, without bloodſhed. The National Aſſembly of France, the moſt enlightened to be found in the records of hiſtory, conceived the ſublime idea of eſtabliſhing a form of government, not on precedents which have ever changed, and will ever be changing, but on that great moral law which is founded in principles immutable and eternal. It was generally ſaid, at firſt, that in launching forth into the regions of metaphyſical ſpeculation, and the diſputes hence to be expected, the French patriots hazarded more than it was prudent to hazard at ſuch a criſis. Time, it was apprehended, would be waſted in endleſs debate; the zeal of the nation might cool; a paſſion for the glory of the king and the monarchy might return; and all things revert into their old channel. It was therefore ſuggeſted that they ought, in imitation of the Engliſh at the revolution in 1688, ſeize, as it were, ſome ſtrong holds on the ſpot, paſs ſome ſtrong and leading reſolutions in favour of freedom, without penetrating to the bottom of matters, and moving more than they might be able to wield; and, ſince they could not form a civil and political conſtitution on any abſtracted model, ſecure ſome important points in the mean time, and advance afterwards, according to circumſtances and opportunities, to greater perfection. But the leaders of the National Aſſembly, or, in other words, the GENIUS that fully and fairly repreſented France, thought otherwiſe, and, as has ſince appeared, thought juſtly. They made a juſter eſtimate of the moderation and the reaſonableneſs of the French people; who, in the interval between the

death of the old, and the birth of the new government, exhibited the moſt ſtriking inſtance that has at any time or place been given to the world of the importance of education, and how much the want or the weakneſs of laws may be ſupplied by manners and opinions. The French nation, *having not a law, were a law unto themſelves*; for the few outrages that were committed appear as nothing when compared with the magnitude and boldneſs of the enterpriſe; and the multitudes that were aſſociated for the purpoſe in different parts of a wide-extended and populous country.

The new legiſlature of France have in their proceedings diſplayed deep knowledge, great good ſenſe and temper in their conduct. It is not any part of our deſign to illuſtrate theſe poſitions by a detail of particulars; we ſhall juſt obſerve, that a political revolution in France may already be conſidered as completely eſtabliſhed, and that a greater portion of the democratical ſpirit will probably be infuſed into the new conſtitution than was generally thought to be poſſible. On the other hand, more checks will be provided againſt the levity and turbulence of democracy than were ever eſtabliſhed before in any republic, ancient or modern. The groundwork of this conſtitution appears to be the ſame with that delineated by Mr. Hume in his idea of a perfect commonwealth.

Thus, on the whole, the late glorious revolution in France has been born by very gentle throws, by the mild power of extended knowledge and humanity. The *ratio* of the ſchools, and the *ultima ratio regum* have, in France, made a coalition. Reaſon is armed with the authority of government; and who will henceforward deride *metaphyſics* armed with the point of the bayonet?

As the French monarchy laboured for its own deſtruction in emancipating North America from Great Britain, ſo alſo, as we have obſerved above, it laboured for the ſame end in intrigues with other powers. Had not the French court been induſtriouſly employed in exciting a revolt againſt the Stadtholder, they would not have experienced the mortification of ſeeing their friends humbled, and their enemies in the United Provinces, exalted on their ruins. Had not the Auſtrians and Ruſſians, with their connivance, made war on the Turks, the emperor would have been at hand, with a numerous and veteran army, to ſupport the Auſtrian faction, and monarchical power, againſt the innovations of the patriots. The employment of the Auſtrian armies on the ſide of Turkey was alſo extremely favourable to the revolt in the Netherlands, the ſeeds of which had been ſown by the progreſs of knowledge, and the attempts of the emperor in 1787.

AUSTRIAN

AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

From the accommodation by which the disturbances of the Austrian Netherlands were brought at the conclusion of 1787, it seemed reasonable to conclude that the foundation was laid of good understanding between the prince and the people, and of future tranquillity in the provinces. But the event has not corresponded to that expectation, and a more troubled scene now presents itself in the Austrian Netherlands, where the provinces are in arms, and an open revolt from the authority of the emperor has taken place. The rash and precipitate measures of the sovereign, too impatient of the control of a limited monarchy, and too little instructed by the former disturbances in his Flemish Provinces, have given rise to this revolt of his subjects. In the year 1787 candour was willing to suppose that the sovereign had been surprised into the arbitrary measures that were then pursued; in the year 1789 that apology can no longer be made. It may be permitted, in this place, to take a slight view of the chief occurrences in the Austrian Netherlands in the two years that have elapsed since our narrative was closed.

A RETROSPECT OF THE EMPEROR'S CONDUCT.

Though, by the concessions which the emperor made in September 1787, and by that ratification which confirmed them, the grievances which formed the principal matters of complaint were redressed, yet it was easily seen that entire confidence was not restored between the prince and his subjects. The jealousy and dissatisfaction which remained in the minds of the people were not removed in the year 1788. Suspicions were still entertained, upon no slight grounds, that the sovereign sought to strain his prerogative beyond due bounds, and though an act of amnesty was granted by the emperor, it was not found that he had laid aside his resentment against those persons who had been most active in the late opposition. The general tenor of administration was ill-suited to gain popularity. Instead of those lenient measures by which angry spirits are conciliated, a harsh and severe plan of governing was adopted; the army was entrusted to a commander who was thought well fitted to carry rigorous orders into execution; the strong arm of authority was lifted up to intimidate the Assembly of the States; and many acts, at once vexatious and arbitrary, were complained of. The re-establishment of the seminary of Louvain tended greatly to increase the popular discontents. That measure, which was insisted on by the sovereign as a condition on which the concessions had been made, well intended to promote a more liberal education in theology, and to restrain the growth of bigotry, but highly unacceptable to the clergy and a great part of the

nation, was obſtinately urged, with too little regard to religious prejudices, or the temper of the times, and with too little reſpect to the privileges of the country. Severities were inflicted on the eccleſiaſtics, who were leſs obedient to the mandates of the prince on this ſubject; the ſoldiery were employed to enforce harſh edicts, and a catholic prince, through exceſs of zeal for toleration, became too little tolerating to his catholic ſubjects. This indiſcreet proceeding, beheld with diſlike by all the provinces, was particularly odious in Brabant, which ranks Louvain among her principal cities, and has a ſpecial care of its privileges. The minds of men, already indiſpoſed and alarmed for their civil rights, were more inflamed by religious zeal; a general diſcontent prevailed, and, at the cloſe of the year 1788, the States of Brabant expreſſed their diſſatisfaction with the meaſures of government, by refuſing to grant the ordinary ſubſidies.

CONSEQUENCES OF THEIR REFUSAL.

This refuſal of the States drew on them the heavy diſpleaſure of the ſovereign, already irritated by the reſiſtance that had been made to the ſeminary of Louvain; and, yielding to his reſentment, the monarch now allowed himſelf to be hurried into violent and arbitrary meaſures. By an edict addreſſed to the province of Brabant, in January 1789, he not only annulled that ratification, by which the former diſturbances had been compoſed, and the ſubſequent act of amneſty, but, as if diſengaged from that compact, into which he had entered at his acceſſion, he recalled that prangaſſal oath which he had ſworn to maintain the Joyous Entry, and the privileges of the people. He ſignified that thoſe eſtabliſhments created in the year 1787, which had cauſed ſo great alarms, and which he had agreed to aboliſh, ſhould be revived in their full extent; that the intendants ſhould forthwith enter on their offices; and that no abbots were to be named in future to the vacant abbies in Brabant: he denounced ſevere chaſtiſements againſt all who ſhould in any wiſe call in queſtion or oppoſe thoſe acts of his adminiſtration. The ſubmiſſion of the States, which ſoon followed their refuſal to grant the ſubſidies, did not long engage the ſovereign to ſuſpend the execution of this ſevere decree. The council of Brabant, according to its known privilege, having refuſed to give its ſanction to edicts that were repugnant to the laws, that ſupreme tribunal, a main ſupport of the liberties of the country, was ſuppreſſed. The States were diſpoſſeſſed of their juſt office, and that care of the public revenue, which belonged to their committee, was beſtowed on perſons appointed by a commiſſion from the prince. That aſſembly, in other reſpects, felt the effects of the diſpleaſure of the ſovereign. That power which they had exerciſed, of withholding the ſubſidies, was affirmed not to belong to them by right. As it was declared

declared that no abbots were to be named in future in Brabant, the ſuppreſſion of the firſt order of the ſtates was denounced by that declaration. The third order, that is the Deputies of the Commons, too little complaiſant to the will of the prince, was pronounced to be improperly and whimſically conſtructed. All the barriers which a reſpectable conſtitution had ſet up, againſt the encroachments of princes, were thrown down; the Joyous Entry was repreſented as encumbered by uſeleſs articles. That ancient privilege of Brabant, by which the people claim to be releaſed from ſuit and ſervice to their princes, till reparation be made for the infringement of rights, was treated as a vain pretenſion, founded in error. The ſovereign having ſet forth that embarraſſment, which the Joyous Entry, and the aſſembly of the ſtates gave to his meaſures, did not conceal his purpoſe of new modelling, by his own authority, the conſtitution, into ſuch a form that the operations of government ſhould no longer be perplexed or diſturbed by that embarraſſment. Whilſt a deſpotic reign was thus proclaimed, the diſpleaſure of adminiſtration was directed, in an arbitrary manner, againſt thoſe from whom an oppoſition to the new ſyſtem was apprehended, and many perſons were impriſoned on vain pretences, and contrary to the known forms of law in the province.

GENERAL REVOLT.

This open and repeated violation of the rights of the people, has produced thoſe remarkable events in the Low Countries that have ſo recently drawn the attention of Europe. The Brabanters, beholding the entire overthrow of a conſtitution that had been maintained through ſo many ages, and perſuading themſelves that their laſt reſource was to be found in arms, diſplayed the ſtandard of revolt; and the ſame month of October, that announced the taking of Belgrade, declared to the Emperor the revolt of his ſubjects in the Low Countries. The firſt enterprizes in arms were ſucceſsful; zeal for freedom triumphed over the diſcipline of regular troops, and the ſpirit of revolt ſoon communicated itſelf to the other provinces, that, in the fate of the conſtitution of Brabant, beheld the approaching fall of their own liberties. The army of the Brabanters was quickly increaſed in numbers; bands of armed citizens roſe up in different parts; great exertions of valour were made by men undiſciplined in war, but not ſparing of blood in the cauſe of Liberty; and, by a rapid train of ſucceſs, in the ſpace of a few weeks, the Auſtrian garriſons were worſted and diſlodged from the great cities in the Netherlands. Even the city of Bruſſels, where the Imperial army had made the greateſt ſhew of reſiſtance, the Auſtrian General was compelled to yield to the ſignal bravery of its inhabitants. Luxemburgh, ſituated at the fartheſt extremity of the provinces, on the German frontier, and defended by ſtrong works,

works, has received the remains of the Auſtrian army, weakened by deſertion and defeat.

CONDUCT OF THE EMPEROR.

The Emperor, alarmed by the firſt ſymptoms of a dangerous revolt, ſought to conciliate the minds of his diſaffected ſubjects, by repairing the wrongs that had been offered to the Conſtitution. Thoſe perſons who had been impriſoned, contrary to law, were ſet at liberty: the Council of Brabant was opened, and the Judges of that tribunal were called upon to aſſemble. The care of the public revenue was aſſigned to that Committee of the States to which it belonged. Even the long conteſted ſeminary of Louvain was yielded up to the public wiſh; and the States were invited to meet deputies appointed by the prince, with full aſſurance that the ancient conſtitution ſhould be maintained. But a people who had ſeen the chains of deſpotiſm a ſecond time prepared for them, have not been inclined to lay down their arms, or to liſten to terms of accommodation. Brabant, Flanders, and Haynault, have openly caſt off the allegiance to their ſovereign, and declared themſelves free and independant States; an example that it is probable will ſoon be imitated by the other provinces.

REFLECTIONS.

Such is the intereſting ſcene which is diſplayed in the Auſtrian Netherlands, at the concluſion of the year 1789. The lovers of Liberty, while they regret the calamities inſeparable from war, and the fatal neceſſity that compels to a conteſt in arms, muſt applaud the gallant ſpirit with which a brave nation has reſiſted that yoke with which they were menaced. Concerning the probable iſſue of this ſudden revolution men will reaſon variouſly. That a powerful monarch will tamely yield up the ſovereignty of thoſe flouriſhing provinces, whoſe loſs can with difficulty be compenſated by his Turkiſh acquiſitions, is ſcarce to be imagined. On the other hand, to regain, and keep poſſeſſion of a country, where the people are ſo much alienated from the Government of the Sovereign, and have made ſuch advances to Independance, may be thought no eaſy enterprize. Is the time come, when the laſt remaining part, that belonged to the Houſe of Auſtria, of the rich poſſeſſions of the Dukes of Burgundy, is to be withdrawn from the dominion of that family?

From the Netherlands the flame of liberty extended to the principality of

LIEGE,

A ſmall ſtate; but peopled with a hardy and brave race of men, worthy of freedom, and, with the favour and aid of Pruſſia, Holland, and other powers, jealous of Auſtria, able to maintain it. The ſame ſpirit began to appear in Bohemia and Moravia; inſomuch,

ſomuch, that the Emperor did not think it prudent to weaken his ſtrong garriſons in thoſe countries, by detachments either to the north, where all was confuſion and revolt, or to the ſouth, where time and the uſual accidents of war, though ſucceſsful, demanded continual reinforcements.

IN THE MILANESE,

The ſtates refuſed to grant the ſubſidy required by their Imperial Sovereign.

IN NAPLES,

Paſquinades appeared, which, after enumerating certain grievances, intimated, That the FASHION OF FRANCE had at laſt come to Italy.

SPAIN.

A new king ſucceeded to the throne of Spain: a kingdom retained in ſubjection to deſpotic power only by ignorance and the power of religious ſuperſtition. The Holy Inquiſition, with the concurrence and advice of the Court, laboured hard to exclude liberty and ſcience by preaching againſt the importation of certain books; the names of which they cauſed to be printed and paſted up on the pillars and walls of their churches, and in other public places. Thus they blindly counteract their own deſign of perpetuating the reign of ignorance and devotion. If a ſpark of curioſity; if human nature remains in Spain, the proſcription juſt mentioned will precipitate the Revolution they mean to prevent. The genius of the Spaniards, naturally quick and ardent, will take free ſcope, and their noble country riſe, like the Phœnix, from her own aſhes.

THE KING OF SARDINIA

Increaſed his army, and formed magazines, whether he apprehended foreign innovation, or dreaded internal convulſion.

GREAT BRITAIN,

Sympathiſing with her amiable king, felt equal ſorrow at his affliction and joy at his recovery. Diſſentions aroſe in Parliament concerning the right, in caſes of mental dereliction, of appointing a Regent. As the king, according to the Britiſh conſtitution, never dies; or, in other words, as the throne is never ſuppoſed to be vacant, the right of acting as Regent belonged, in the judgment of one party, to the Prince of Wales, the lineal ſucceſſor to the throne, though it was the *right* becauſe it was the duty and office of Parliament to declare the right of the Heir Apparent, to invite him to exerciſe it. But a majority decided that the right of appointing a Regent, in all caſes where a ceſſation had taken place in the functions of executive government, was veſted in the two remaining branches of the legiſlature, the Houſe of Lords, and the Houſe of Commons. At the ſame time that they paſſed this abſtracted reſolution concern-

ing

ing the queſtion of *right* to the Regency, they did what was *right* becauſe it was natural, proper, politically expedient, and even neceſſary, in calling on the Prince of Wales to adminiſter the government, though under certain limitations. In the mean time, the recovery of the king ſuperſeded this new arrangement.

It was not unnatural for the partizans of the Prince, and the adherents of oppoſition, to wiſh for a change in adminiſtration. Accordingly, among ſo numerous a claſs of men there were not wanting certain individuals who ſuffered the impatience of their zeal and their hopes to betray them into expreſſions of eager expectation, equally inconſiſtent with dignity and decorum. But the Prince of Wales acquitted himſelf on that trying emergency with perfect propriety: and it is allowed, on all hands, that nothing could exceed the conſiſtency, moderation, and genuine patriotiſm of the Duke of Portland, who is conſidered as the centre of union among the Whig party, and whoſe conduct was perfectly approved by the moſt reſpectable among his political friends. The Duke, who had voted for the appointment of the Prince of Wales to the Regency without reſtrictions, ſhewed, on the very firſt ſymptoms of convaleſcence in the king, that he had not been governed by any perſonal predilection or partial views; and proved that his attachment was to the Engliſh Conſtitution and the Royal Line of Brunſwick.

PROSPERITY OF GREAT BRITAIN.

The trade and manufactures of Great Britain, from a variety of fortunate circumſtances, flouriſhed in 1789 to an extent unknown in any former period. Commerce had riſen with an elaſtic force that carried it beyond its ancient limits; the capitals and the energy of the nation were turned from the American war, and the American continent, and flowed in faſer as well as more productive channels; while the Dutch and the French, the great rivals of Britain in manufactures and commerce, were in a ſtate of ſtupor, diſſatisfaction, and diſtraction. The commercial treaty with France was undoubtedly advantageous, and gave freſh excitement to our woollen, iron, and ſome other manufactures. But that the great maſs of the Britiſh trade was moved by other ſprings, and did not reſt on any ſuch ſlippery baſis, appeared from this, that after the diſtractions and the wants of the French nation left little or nothing to give in exchange for Britiſh commodities, our trade continued to flouriſh with increaſing vigour.

TAXES.

Several trifling but vexatious taxes were impoſed on the people for the purpoſe of making up the deficiency in the miniſter's darling ſcheme, an annual million for the diſcharge of the national debt;

debt: A ſcheme which we have demonſtrated (to the complete conviction, as we have the ſatisfaction to underſtand, of great numbers of our readers) to be ſophiſtical, and eſſentially injurious to the induſtry and general proſperity of the nation. It is, as if a narrow-minded and ignorant miſer ſhould hoard and tranſmit to his grandſon a quantity of crown and half-crown pieces, reduced by the gradual depreciation of money to leſs than half their value, inſtead of employing them in his own life-time, in the cultivation of land, or other productive labour.—The moſt odious and dangerous of all the taxes impoſed in 1789 on the people of England, was the extenſion of the exciſe to the article of tobacco. This occaſioned a general and juſt alarm. Let us do juſtice, while we make theſe remarks, to the activity and public zeal of the miniſter; to the ſupport he has afforded to the Prince of Orange; to his vigilance in the prevention of ſmuggling; and the candour with which he adopts hints from whatever quarter they are ſuggeſted.—Let us at the ſame time, as becomes good citizens, inquire with freedom, whether the zeal of adminiſtration *be always according to knowledge?*—and whether they are not, in ſome inſtances, more anxious to ſtrengthen the hands of government than to provide for the eaſe, or to ſecure the privileges, of the people? Having thus taken a review of 1789 we come to

JANUARY 1790,

On which our obſervations muſt, for the preſent, be brief. The repulſe, or the retreat of the Imperial troops from Luxemburgh, will probably provoke the Emperor to try the fortune of war, and by no means to abdicate the Netherlands without a bloody conteſt. But the declining health of this prince, as well as that of his Imperial ally, take ſomewhat from the curioſity and intereſt with which we form conjectures concerning their preſent intentions.

KING'S SPEECH.

His Majeſty's ſpeech to the Britiſh parliament announces proſpects of peace and proſperity, we hope, on ſecure grounds. Reſpecting the diſputes on the continent it is properly and prudently ſilent.

A good underſtanding happily ſubſiſts between the Sovereign and the Heir-apparent; and frequent jarrings take place, as happily perhaps, between the Prime Miniſter and Lord Thurlow.

☞ *Communications for* THE ENGLISH REVIEW *are requeſted to be ſent to* Mr. MURRAY, No. 32, Fleet-ſtreet, London; *where Subſcribers for this Monthly Performance are reſpectfully deſired to give in their Names.*

THE

ENGLISH REVIEW,

For FEBRUARY 1790.

ART. I. *Strictures on the Eccleſiaſtical and Literary Hiſtory of Ireland, from the moſt ancient Times till the Introduction of the Roman Ritual, and the Eſtabliſhment of the Papal Supremacy, by Henry II. King of England. Alſo an Hiſtorical Sketch of the Conſtitution and Government of Ireland, from the moſt early authenticated Period down to the Year* 1783. *By Thomas Campbell, LL.D. Chancellor of St. Macartin's, Clogher.* 8vo. 6s. White, Dublin. 1789.

THE remark has been long ſince made that no modeſt nation has attempted to carry their claims to antiquity to ſuch an extravagant height as has been done by the people of Ireland. The valour, the proweſs, and the accompliſhments of their anceſtors, in times of the remoteſt antiquity, and in the days of weſtern ſavageneſs, ignorance, and barbariſm, have been the ſucceeding themes of the Iriſh hiſtorians in general. One of their lateſt writers * dwells on this favourite ſubject through two ponderous quarto volumes; he there riots in all the caprices of a luxuriant imagination, but diſdains to prolong the theme beyond the inglorious declenſion of Ireland—in the *twelfth* century! Yet to do ſtrict juſtice, it is neceſſary to add, that, from what we have of the works of theſe gentlemen, of Keating, of O'Flaherty, of O'Connor, and O'Halloran, they, in very few inſtances, ſeem to aim at deception; they appear to be themſelves deceived,

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* Mr. O'Halloran.

They are borne ſo high by their own enthuſiaſm that they overlook thoſe objections which muſt preſent themſelves even to the ſuperficial obſerver.

This paſſion we muſt alſo add has its origin in a vanity the moſt natural to the human heart. The relative ſituation of Ireland and Great-Britain, whether the crown of the former be 'ſubjected' or annexed, places that kingdom in a ſituation of dependence; and 'a people,' ſays Gibbon, 'who are diſſatisfied 'with their preſent condition, will eagerly graſp at any viſion of '*paſt* or *future* glory.' Thus being below her neighbours in wealth and power, Ireland conſoles her in a proud and penſive contemplation of the figments of antiquity. 'She ſullenly 'turns away,' to uſe the language of Mr. Whitaker, 'from the 'light of reformation, and wraps herſelf in the gloom of her 'own legendary annals.'

It is fortunate for the reputation of Ireland that the gentleman who in this work has ſo ſucceſsfully encountered theſe phantoms, is himſelf a native of that kingdom. He has in this performed a taſk which was ſuggeſted by the late Dr. Johnſon, and recommended by Mr. Burke. He has drawn, with an intelligent and ſteady hand, the lines between what was merely fiction; what was at beſt uncertain; and what was actually capable of proof. We do not mean to ſay that Mr. Campbell has done this in every inſtance; in ſome that taſk was impracticable, and in many the toil is unavoidably left to be accompliſhed by the labour of others. He examines into the ſtrongeſt proofs which the partiſans of Iriſh antiquity have adduced from the monuments, the literature, and the manners, of that country; and in general maintains the ground which he has at firſt occupied with truth, force, and preciſion.

Of the firſt of theſe proofs, the monuments found in Ireland, Mr. Campbell expreſſes himſelf in the following manner:

'To ſubſtantiate our claim to a very remote antiquity, ſome writers think it ſufficient if they diſcover a ſimilitude between ſome preſent Iriſh cuſtom, or remain of rude art, and thoſe of ancient Gaul, Greece, Perſia, Phœnicia, or other countries celebrated in ſtory; not conſidering that they, in ſo doing, only adduce arguments, for the ancient rudeneſs of thoſe countries, not for the refinement of their own. For rude monuments and cuſtoms, be they found where they may, are the moſt indelible teſts of the rudeneſs of the times in which they were erected or uſed. If they would evince the refinement of Ireland from its conformity to thoſe countries of *quondam* refinement, they ſhould point out the veſtiges of either ancient magnitude or elegance in the works of this country.

'If then we are to be for ever collecting the beggarly elements of rude monuments, the rudeſt upon which the penury of language is obliged to beſtow the name of art, our purſuit is puerile, nay childiſh indeed.

indeed. If the most civilised countries on earth, have still such remains, this only proves that they once were barbarous, else such monuments would not have been erected. For if such things could establish antiquity, then all countries which possess them would be equally ancient; and we read of scarce any without them. If antiquity means any thing honourable to any nation, it must mean that that nation has been for a long period of time removed from the infantine state of society in which those rude monuments were produced. The pursuit of antiquity should go no farther than it is connected with higher efforts of art, and less equivocal symptoms of nascent civilisation. All beyond are seas of glass, and ships of amber.

It is no shame for any nation to have been once barbarous; all nations in Europe have been so, because they once were young, and, like young children, they had nothing worth recording, and like them too, in another respect, they would have been incapable of recording them, even if they were worth notice. Upon this ground the intrinsic glory of Ireland is more firmly established by considering it as a *new*, than as an *old*, nation. For if her sons were once so accomplished, they must now confess themselves to have degenerated. If Pagan Ireland was the nurse of heroes and philosophers, is it not the greater reproach to Christian Ireland that she has for so many ages groaned in servitude and groped in ignorance? It must, upon a dispassionate estimate, do most credit to this country to be considered as an infant state, emerging from ignorance and barbarism, like Hercules arising from his cradle, and like him too labouring under a hard task-master.

'For suppose that our Ogygian writers could trace up their genealogy to Japhet, and could prove that they knew their letters before any nation in Europe, then Spencer's question will return, 'If such old scholars, why so unlearned still?' Suppose also that it could be true, what is asserted, that our ancestors extended their conquests in Britain, and to the Alps; then let it be asked, after raising this vision of ancient prowess, does it redound to the true glory of this country, that in the most early times, concerning which no two writers agree, our ancestors were so potent; but that in those less remote, of which there is no doubt, they were the trodden slaves of Danes and Norwegians? Would not the Irish, if a civilised people, have been the veriest dastards upon earth to suffer such indignities, as they confess they did, from the Turgesian crew? And if it be argued that they regained their ancient greatness and splendour by the expulsion of the Danes, yet what must that greatness and splendour have been, which, almost without a blow, submitted to English domination?'

The author then pursues the assertors of Irish antiquity through a long train of allegations and pretended facts, which he is generally successful in proving to be fallacious and unfounded. His arguments are marked with much precision, and his illustrations heightened with considerable humour. Of both the reader will find a strong instance in his observations on the ideal palace

of King Cormac, which was said to have been 300 feet square, and built upon three towers.

The sketch of the government and constitution of Ireland, which is added as an appendix, contains much valuable matter, disposed in the best arrangement.

ART. II. *Observations on the First Part of Dr. Knowles's Testimonies from the Writers of the First Four Centuries. In a Letter to a Friend. By Capel Lofft.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Johnson, London. 1789.

WHATEVER comes from the pen of Mr. Lofft must be perused with a degree of partiality. The known integrity, candour, abilities, and industry, of the author ensure a certain degree of respect, to which the present performance, however we may condemn it, in some respects has an undoubted claim. It has been the happiness of Mr. Lofft, in more than this instance, to concentrate the arguments and authorities of a worn-out subject into a small space, and by a certain elegance of expression, but above all by the evident marks of an honest mind, to render that subject interesting.

In an advertisement prefixed we are told that the author having, to outward appearance, conformed to the establishment, conceives it his duty to acquaint the world that he limits his concurrence to such points as, in his opinion, are founded in scripture. So it is to be supposed all mankind do in this and every other establishment; but if, after long deliberation, Mr. Lofft is convinced that many points supported by the church are to be regarded no otherwise than as corruptions, and still is ready to consider himself as not wholly separated from such an establishment, it would appear these points, however they may afterwards be represented, are not of sufficient importance to induce him to form a new society, or to join any of the numerous ones already formed. If this be the case, we cannot immediately see the necessity that should induce a son of the establishment thus to take up arms against a venerable mother, to whose authority he has hitherto shewn a dutiful submission; still less to recommend the opinions of writers who, though her lenity spares them, are endeavouring to destroy her existence.

Though by the title we should be led to expect some observations on the earlier writers of Christianity, yet Mr. Lofft confines himself entirely to the passages in scripture adduced by the favourers of the Trinitarian system. His answers to these contain nothing new, except an illustration from Homer, which, for the benefit of his parochial readers, he might at least have translated,

translated. The following are all the observations, if they can be called such, we meet with on the writers of the first century:

'When the opinions and practice of the times nearest to the promulgation of Christianity are examined, we find nothing contradictory to this idea. For of the Apostolic Constitutions, as they have been termed (and the title sounds highly), I do not think it necessary to speak here; unless their date and their incorruptness could be satisfactorily established; and of the recognitions, which, with proper reserve, are said to be ascribed to Clemens, the very mode of introducing them speaks sufficiently.'

'Whether I shall have leisure and inclination to examine the quotations from the writers of the three first centuries, is very uncertain. I am far from dreading the result of the discussion; or from doubting the fair conclusion in the mind of an inquirer who distinguishes, as Dr. Knowles admits we ought to distinguish between the fallibility of human imagination and the certainty of divine truth. I will only now remark that a proposition of the kind stated, which asserts *three Persons to be one Divine Being*, if it can indeed be a part of revelation, may be expected to appear and be recognised explicitly from the first; and not to be obscurely and ambiguously intimated by the writers of the early age, and gradually strengthened as rhetoric with her tropes and figures, and scholastic learning with her accommodating systems, mixed themselves with the simplicity of the gospel.

'Such a proposition, if it can be supposed capable of proof, ought to derive itself, with absolute clearness, from the fountain of revelation; it ought to prove itself coëval at least with the completion of the scriptural code. If we find it at the source, let us acknowledge our conviction; but if it floats on the surface, when the streams of fancy rush in upon the waters of truth, let us not hastily refer it to a divine origin. Let us explore more deeply; and we shall yet trace the pure never-failing river, immiscible with the inundations.'

In answer to this, we have only to observe that the opinions of the sincerest Christians being divided on the meaning of scripture, nothing can be more reasonable than to search for information from those who lived nearest to the times of the evangelists; and therefore, though we give our author credit for his industrious production of *a day*, we cannot help thinking it an incomplete answer to any part of a work professing to shew the opinions of the first four centuries.

There are several learned and ingenious notes subjoined, which, not having been written at the time the letter was, and to prevent too frequent interruption of the reader's attention, are omitted in the body of the work. These conclude with many just and ingenious remarks on the true spirit of Christian benevolence, such as we should expect from so amiable a character as Mr. Lofft.

There is also a pretty large appendix, the first, second, and third numbers of which contain an abstract of the evidence concerning the reading of 1 John v. 17. In this we find an ample and impartial statement of all the copies and authorities which may serve to fix the credit of this long-disputed passage. We are ready to admit the impolicy of bringing forward this questionable passage, when there are so many others more to the purpose, and while we highly approve Dr. Knowles's omission of it, we cannot see very clearly what necessity there was for an elaborate confutation of it in a work intended to answer the doctor.

Number IV. of the appendix contains an historical account of the first introduction of the word *Trinity* among Christian writers; No. V. a review of the arguments derived from the baptismal form. In the first of these there are a few original thoughts. The last number is an extract from the works of the author's friend, the late Dr. J. Jebb, on the doctrine of the Trinity, and of worship to Christ.

ART. III. *The Life of Scipio Africanus, and of Epaminondas; intended as a Supplement to Plutarch's Lives. With Notes and Observations on the Battle of Zama, and Remarks critical and historical on the principal Battles of Epaminondas, by M. de Folard. To which is prefixed a Dissertation on the Distinction between a great Man and an illustrious or eminent Man, by the Abbé de St. Pierre, of the French Academy. Now first translated into English from the Original French of the Abbé Seran de la Tour, by the Rev. R. Parry, Rector of Kemerton, Gloucestershire.* 8vo. 2 vols. 8s. boards. Richardson. London, 1787.

WHETHER Plutarch ever composed the lives of Scipio Africanus and Epaminondas, it is impossible now to determine; but they were subjects highly worthy of being related by that excellent biographer. The former of those illustrious characters stands almost unexampled in history for the glorious atchievements which he performed when he scarcely had reached the age of manhood; and the latter for the wonderful abilities which he had long concealed, until at last they were called forth into exertion by the exigencies of his country. Each of them affords a signal example of the extraordinary powers of the human mind, when actuated with vigour and alacrity. The present narrative was undertaken by M. de Folard, with the view of supplying the deficiency in the work of Plutarch; and he has collected for the purpose all the information which can be obtained from ancient writers.

Publius

Publius Cornelius Scipio, surnamed Africanus, was born at Rome in the 517th year of the city, and 335 years before the Christian era;

'The Cornelian family, of which he was the head, had ever joined abilities and virtues to the glory of a pedigree, which lost itself in antiquity. Publius Cornelius his father, and Cneus his uncle, lost their lives at the head of the armies of the republic. The sequel of this history will show how worthy Scipio was to inherit the name of these heroes.

'Scipio was but eighteen when he had the happiness to distinguish himself by one of those singular actions which do as much honour to the *man* as the hero.

'Publius Scipio his father permitted him to attend him in the first campaign he made against Hannibal in Italy; the Carthaginian and Roman armies met on the banks of the Tesinus, and the generals immediately joined battle. The Romans gave way on all sides, and nothing could rally them. Scipio, who commanded in quality of consul, in vain attempted every thing that could be expected from an able general; he was himself on the point of being made prisoner, when his son, whom he had placed on a neighbouring eminence with a sufficient guard, perceived his situation. The danger his father was in, would not suffer him to obey the injunction he had laid upon him, not to mix in the action; he rushed down at the head of his guard, whom he obliged to follow him, fell upon the enemy with all the impetuosity of that courage which nothing could resist, got to his father, disengaged him from the hands of the Carthaginians, and received from him, with embraces of the most lively tenderness, the glorious name of his *deliverer*.

'The consul ordered a civic crown to be presented to his son; the young Scipio, sufficiently rewarded by the action itself, refused to receive it. It is on occasion of this refusal that Pliny makes this beautiful reflection on the materials of that crown, which consisted only of oaken branches. Other crowns were, for the most part, says he, either composed of, or enriched with, the most fine and pure gold. The Romans thought it an affront to humanity to offer any other reward than that of glory to a man who saved the life of a man; they would have blushed at mixing views of interest with an action so natural.

'This event was sufficient to rouse the ambition which a young Roman patrician would feel, and one of a name which encouraged him to aspire to every thing. It was to Scipio only an incitement to seize every occasion of signalising himself, however dangerous.'

The noble conduct of Scipio, in resigning the beautiful Spanish captive to her lover Allucio, has been universally celebrated. Allucio, wishing to record his own gratitude and Scipio's generosity, caused a votive shield to be made, on which he was represented receiving from the Roman general's hands the princess to whom he was engaged. The biographer informs

us that he has seen this memorial, as remarkable as it is valuable, in the French king's cabinet of medals. It had lain almost nineteen hundred years in the river Rhone, where we know that Scipio's baggage was lost on his return from Spain to Italy. This shield contains forty-six marks of pure silver, and is twenty-six inches in diameter. We are told that the plain uniform taste which reigns through the whole design, in the attitudes and the contours, shews the simplicity of the arts in those days, when they avoided all foreign ornaments to be more attentive to natural beauties.

The ferocity of the people of Astapa broke forth at this period into an act of such desperate resolution that we shall give a place to the following account of it from the work now before us:

"Astapa was a small town, erected on a mountain, without either fortifications or garrison. Lucius Martius, he who acquired such reputation before the arrival of Scipio, and who commanded a separate corps of troops, summoned it to surrender; to which no attention was paid. The inhabitants, accustomed to pillaging, were unwilling to submit to a power, under which they must have lived peaceably and on a good footing with their neighbours, without being allowed to commit any violence or injustice. They held the Romans in abhorrence, and fancying themselves sufficiently strong by their hatred alone, resolved to perish rather than surrender. They were not ignorant of the Roman usage towards towns taken by assault; they knew that all in them were either put to death or condemned to slavery, and that the places which they stormed were immediately given up to pillage. They had heaped together at Astapa the plunder of the whole country, and amassed immense riches by rapine and murders. Martius offered them their lives and liberties if they would give up their wealth; but it was dearer to them than life itself; they therefore refused it at such a price, and could not bring themselves to assent that the fruit of so many years employed in injustice and robbery, should pass into the possession of their mortal enemies. They caused their gold and silver money, and whatever they had of value, to be brought into the market-place; then, with a firmness worthy of a better motive, they placed upon this heap their old people, their wives and children; they enclosed them with a circle of faggots ready to be lighted, and placed a guard of fifty young men, with orders to set the whole on fire, and not suffer a single person to escape if they were beaten in the sally they were then going to make upon the Romans.

"Having taken these fatal precautions, they all devoted themselves to death by the most horrible imprecations, and swore to kill themselves if they were worsted in the combat, rather than submit to the republic. Full of this terrible resolution they briskly sallied out: Martius, who never thought them capable of this rashness, was surprised; the first posts were carried; they observed no order in the action, but fought with such fury that at first nothing could withstand

withſtand them. Martius, towards whoſe lines they reſolutely advanced, had time to form a body of veterans, who knew not how to retreat or give way, though death ſtared them in the face; they attacked them like men in deſpair, and, not being able to conquer, were all killed, ſo that not a ſingle man remained.

'The news of this defeat ſoon reached Aſtapa, and produced in that town a moſt cruel tragedy: the fifty young men, being informed of the loſs of their fellow-citizens, ſet fire to the pile, which incloſed all that theſe wretched men had left that was moſt dear and valuable, a vaſt number of women and children, who were raſh enough to ſubſcribe to the barbarous reſolution of their huſbands and parents, yet had not conſtancy enough to bear the terrible attacks of the devouring flame; but the young men had the inhumanity to drive again into the blazing pile their half-burned bodies, and to cut in pieces thoſe they were unable to force back. After ſo great a carnage, tired of living themſelves, as well as of killing their fellow-citizens, reeking with the blood they had ſhed, they threw themſelves into the midſt of the flames to avoid the Romans. Thus periſhed the Aſtapians, by ſuch an exceſs of pride and fury as makes humanity ſhudder at the relation. They ſhewed, in thus ſacrificing themſelves, the immoderate antipathy they bore to a nation which had loaded all their country with acts of kindneſs, and the exceſſive tranſport the human heart is ſuſceptible of, when inflamed by its paſſions.'

M. de Folard's opinion, with reſpect to the motives which actuated the great Fabius in his oppoſition to Scipio, is candid and ſenſible. The conduct of that celebrated commander has been generally aſcribed to envy; but our author ſuggeſts the poſſibility of its having proceeded from prudence. He obſerves that all the advantages which were gained againſt Hannibal in battle, only excited Fabius's fears leſt there ſhould happen a reverſe of fortune that might prove dangerous to the republic. Scipio, on the other hand, convinced that the driving of Hannibal out of Italy would afford the Romans nothing more than a temporary reſpite from war, uniformly perſevered in recommending to his countrymen the utter extinction of Carthage. 'Thus different principles,' ſays our author, 'make the greateſt 'men think and act differently, who yet aim only at the ſame 'object, the good of their country.' We acknowledge that, conſidering the cool temper, and particularly the great age of Fabius, it ſeems more reaſonable to impute his oppoſition to a conviction of judgment than to perſonal animoſity.

In compiling the life of Epaminondas, as well as that of Scipio, M. de Folard has availed himſelf of all the information which could be derived from the ancient hiſtorians; nor has he omitted any opportunity of rendering the narrative more intereſting by his own incidental reflections. He ſeems, however, to have been more ambitious of giving a faithful than an elegant

gant history, both of the Roman and Theban commanders. His observations on the battle of Zama are judicious, and discover him to have been particularly attentive to the subject. In respect of the translation, it is executed with perspicuity, and we may add with justness: but we cannot avoid mentioning, that, in the perusal of it, a few obsolete English expressions, and a few Gallicisms, have presented themselves to our observation; which an indulgent reader will overlook in so long a work as the lives of Scipio Africanus and of Epaminondas.

ART. IV. *Mathematical Essays on several Subjects; containing new Improvements and Discoveries in the Mathematics. By the Rev. John Hellins.* 4to. 7s. 6d. Davis. London, 1788.

THE first of these Essays has been already published in the 70th volume of the Philosophical Transactions. It contains some new theorems for the computation of logarithms, in which Mr. Hellins appears to be particularly conversant. The utility of those artificial numbers is established beyond dispute; and therefore every attempt to improve the construction of them is justly entitled to approbation.

The second Essay relates likewise to the computation of logarithms, containing not only several new theorems for that purpose, but a new method of constructing a table of those artificial numbers. All the series which our author gives converge very swiftly; but some of them about twice as fast as any of the kind hitherto published. The approximations to the values of those series have different degrees of accuracy, each of which is ascertained; and the method recommended by Mr. Hellins, of computing, examining, or enlarging a table of logarithms, is, we acknowledge, very easy.

The third Essay treats of the reduction of equations that have two equal roots; and contains an investigation of the common methods, with some remarks. The method advised by our author is different from any other we have seen; and it seems, from its facility, to be well adapted to the capacity of learners.

The fourth Essay is employed on the resolution of equations that have two equal roots; and contains some new theorems for calculating the values of those roots. In the preceding Essay the author had demonstrated that, when an equation has two equal roots, it may be very easily reduced to a lower dimension. In that now before us, he shews that such equations are easily reducible to any dimension desired, even to a single one. We find that both these Essays are part of a new system of algebra, in which the author's plan is to treat distinctly of equations that have two, as well as those that have three, equal roots; and to apply those equations to some new uses.

The next Essay is on the correction of fluents found by descending series. Though the finding of fluents by descending series has been often mentioned by the writers on fluxions, yet it appears not to have been brought into practice, in the solution of problems, even in the treatises of Emerson and Simpson. This neglect of the descending series is the more remarkable as their convergency, by the powers of the flowing quantity, always begins when the convergency of the ascending series, by the powers of the same quantity, ceases. In this Essay the author evinces that fluents taken in descending series commonly want a correction; which being applied, those series become no less useful than ascending ones.

The sixth Essay treats of the transformation of certain series to others of swifter convergency. It appears that the series obtained by this method of transformation always come out by pairs, of such peculiar relation to each other, that the terms of one being computed, those of the other may be easily derived from them; the advantage of which, in numerical calculations, is very obvious. We likewise find that the method of transformation explained by Mr. Hellins, is applicable to all series of which the terms are any geometrical progression whatever, divided by any geometrical progression.

The seventh and last Essay treats of the force of oscillating bodies on their centres of suspension. This subject was first offered to the author's consideration while he was in the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, when some new clocks were set up there, to be used in the astronomical observations. It had been found by experiment, that clocks kept time better when they were in strong cases firmly fixed against a wall, than when in common cases slightly fixed to the wainscot of a room, or only resting on a floor. And as it was part of his business to keep an account of the going of these new clocks, the pendulums of which were much heavier than common, he was induced to inquire with what force the pendulums acted on their centres of suspension, in a horizontal direction. It appears, from the last two problems in this Essay, that the force of bells, when rung in peal, must be great on their axes of motion, and consequently on the frames and walls that resist it. This subject, therefore, we think with Mr. Hellins, deserves more attention than has been hitherto paid to it.

We learn, from an advertisement, that the author has by him materials for another volume; among which are new theorems for extracting the square and cube roots; an easy method of finding products and quotients to eleven or twelve places of figures, by means of a common table of logarithms to seven places only; and some farther improvements in algebra and fluxions. As Mr. Hellins's inquiries evidently tend to enlarge the knowledge of

mathematics

mathematics by useful problems, they cannot fail of proving highly acceptable to all who cultivate those sciences.

ART. V. *Archæologia; or, Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity. Published by the Society of Antiquaries of London. Vol. VIII.* 4to. 1l. 1s. White. London, 1787.

[*Continued.*]

* XVIII*. *Some Observations on the Invention of Cards, and their 'Introduction into England. By Mr. Gough.'*

WE have already dwelt so long upon the history of cards, that we cannot insist much upon the present *memoire*. Nor need we. The whole is a vast collection of miscellaneous matter, that seems to have hardly any one purpose in view. And we shall only notice a couple of passages.

'If, in order to prove the antiquity of cards, we recur to 'the edicts prohibiting the use of them; we find the *first* record 'of this kind among the *French*, to be dated Jan. 22, 1397, an 'ordinance of the Prevot de Paris, forbidding the manufactur-'ing part of the people, from playing at tennis, bowls, dice, 'cards, and quilles. John I. King of *Castille*, in an edict dated 'ten years before (1387), forbad dice and *cards* in his domi-'nions.' And 'Abbe Rivé, who attributes the invention to 'the Spaniards, finds them prohibited in the statutes of a new 'order, called the order of the band, instituted by Alphonsus XI. 'about 1332.'

'The French cards,' says Mr. Gough, 'appear to have had 'the same figures as our modern ones, the *carreaux* or dia-'monds, *cœurs* or hearts, *trefles* or clubs, and *piques* or spades.' The French therefore and the English agree, in differing from the Spanish, and in having *hearts* for *pieces of money*, and *diamonds* or *squares* for *cups*. But, while we accord with the Spaniards, in calling one of our suits *clubs*, and another *spades*; the French have denominated them *trefles* and *piques*. Yet, what is more remarkable, we retain the English name for the Spanish symbol of one, and even the Spanish name for the Spanish symbol of the other; when we have *discarded* the Spanish symbols of both, and have concurred with the French in assuming the present. And the French appellations for these, happily serve to shew us *what* they are; the *club* being a real *trefle* or clover-grass, and the *spade* the real head of a *pique* or halberd. We have taken the new symbols, but preserved the old names. We played at cards, *long* before we adopted the new symbols. We were so much in the habit from our long use of cards, of denominating the visible club and sword before us a spade and a club; that, even when they were superseded by the *pique* and

the

the *trefle*, we still adhered to our old appellations. The modes of speaking, and the forms of conversation, were so deeply imprinted upon our tongues and minds, that even ocular inspection could not correct them. And our fathers have thus left us a forcible addition of evidence, for the great antiquity of card-playing among us.

'XIX. *Observations on our ancient Churches. By the Rev. Mr.* '*Ledwich, F. S. A.*'—*Vicar of Aghabor in Ireland, we believe, and now publishing the Antiquities of Ireland in Numbers.*

This is a disquisition so novel, singular, and learned, that we cannot but give our readers an abstract of it, and some remarks upon it.

The Roman stile of architecture, he thinks, was *not* introduced into Britain by the Romans; though Tacitus expressly assures us, that Agricola taught the Britons to build houses, temples, and market-places. This is surely to oppose presumption to evidence. And the reason assigned for this presumption, that 'not a trace of such edifices exists' at present; is as ridiculous as the other is extravagant. All the Roman arts of building were introduced into Britain with the buildings by the Romans.

The Saxons, he says, 'in their own country, worshipped 'their gods in stone-circles, or amid the gloom of ponderous 'trilithons; and there are abundant proofs of their doing the 'same here.' Mr. Ledwich here confounds the Saxons and the Britons. The stone-circles allude to those at Roll-right, Abury, &c.; and 'the ponderous trilithons' point directly at Stone-henge. And the whole is in direct opposition to the evidence of Bede, who thus describes the only temple of the Saxons that is noticed in our own island. 'Suggero, Rex,' says the priest now turned Christian, 'ut *templa* et altaria, quæ sine 'fructu utilitatis sacravimus, ocius anathemati et *igni contra-* '*damus.*' The king asked, 'Quis aras et *fana* idolorum *cum* '*septis quibus erant circumdata*, primus profanare deberet.' The priest offers himself, and sets out for the purpose. 'Nec dis-'tulit ille, mox ut propriabat ad *fanum*, profanare illud, injectâ 'in eo lanceâ quam tenebat; multumque gavisus de agnitione 'veri Dei cultûs, jussit sociis *destruere* ac *succendere fanum* cum '*omnibus* septis suis.' And this temple was plainly a regular and covered building, like the other temples of the times; and no ways distinguished in general from the churches in the days of Bede, but by its idolatrous use and its encircling mounds. 'Locus ille quondam idolorum,' adds Bede, '—vocatur hodie 'Godmunddingaham,'

'Godmunddingaham,' now Godmundham, or the mound-house of the gods *.

Thus ſtumbling in the outſet, Mr. Ledwich proceeds to point out the introduction of Roman architecture, by the converted Saxons. But then this was merely 'the ſtyle of thoſe churches, 'that acknowledged the doctrines and ſovereignty of the Roman pontiff. They had—crypts under them for reliques; they 'were—ſupported by arches and columns; theſe arches and columns were adorned with the images of ſaints and legendary 'ſtories; their ſhape was—cruciform; they had oratories in 'the ailes;' and they were 'glazed. This was the Roman 'ſtyle, as preciſely delineated by Bede, Eddius, and Richard 'Prior of Hexham, and contradiſtinguiſhed from the 'Britiſh.' Churches built on this model, as that of Hexham was, 'were 'executed by artiſts brought from Rome, Italy, and France: 'what reaſon then can there be for calling them Saxon? Many 'learned antiquaries have lately relinquiſhed this appellation, 'and call them Roman; but they have not explained what they 'underſtood by a Roman work. It is not enough that the arch 'is ſemicircular, and the form and proportion of the column regular; the feuillage ſhould be alſo Roman, to entitle it to this 'diſtinction. The former by chance may be right, but the 'latter is not leſs characteriſtic. *The Saxon may poſſibly be a 'corruption of the Roman ſtyle*, but there are ſtrong inducements 'to think it had a very different origin.' All this may be true; but we ſee not the conſiſtency of parts with parts, or the ruling aim of the whole.

Mr. Ledwich goes to deduce one part of the Saxon ſtyle, the ornaments, from—the Eaſt. In a Syriac M. S. of 586 he finds them all. They were derived from the Jews to the Chriſtians, he argues, and from the Romans to the Saxons. 'Such 'then,' he infers, 'is the evidence, of the origin of the Saxon 'feuillage.' But he purſues the ſubject, and diſcovers *other* ornaments to come from—Egypt. In the undercroft of Canterbury cathedral, which he ſays is univerſally allowed—, amid all 'the conflagrations and repairs it [the cathedral] underwent,' to have 'remained unalterably the ſame;' he notes 'the prevalence of Egyptian hieroglyphical figures,' on the capitals. He finds the *Æluru*s or cat of Egypt, when it may be the cat of any other country; a hawk killing a ſerpent, common to all countries; 'an *ideal* quadruped, killing *ſome* noxious bird or 'ſerpent;' a 'gladiator or criminal engaged with a lion,' a man *with a monſtrous tail* engaged with *ſome* wild beaſt, and no

* Hiſt. 11. 13.

more

more Egyptian than it is *Tramontane*; 'a horseman with a cap 'and trowse,' *no* Egyptian; 'a sheep, to which the Egyptian 'Soütes and Thebans paid divine honours,' certainly *not* a sheep, and most probably a horse; 'an equestrian figure, com-'mon on Roman coins,' and *therefore* no Egyptian, 'a pure 'Egyptian figure, a double-headed Anubis bestriding a double-'headed crocodile;' a double-headed figure without any appearance of the '*latrator* Anubis' in it, bestriding an animal that has no appearance of the 'rictus crocodili' at *either* of its mouths; 'a man sitting on the head of another,' and holding 'in one hand a fish and in the other a cup,' a symbol so little Egyptian, that Mr. Ledwich can only find 'the fish' to have been sacred in Egypt; 'a double-headed monster,' which even Mr. Ledwich cannot make Egyptian, and which holds, like the preceding one, a fish and a cup in its hands; 'a bird destroying 'a crocodile,—or perhaps some serpent of the lizard kind,' not Egyptian in Mr. Ledwich's view of it, and an unintelligible something in every other man's; 'a satyr resting on two deer,' *no* Egyptian; 'two birds on a Roman masque,' *no* Egyptians; 'a grotesque—playing on a violin,' and 'another grotesque—'blowing a trumpet,' neither of them Egyptian. We have thus noticed *all* the figures that Mr. Ledwich has *explained*, though not all that he has delineated. 'That these are Egyptian hiero-'glyphical figures,' he adds, 'we may appeal to Porphyry, to 'Tertullian, Min. Felix, Pignorius, Montfaucon, and Chefflet.' But, that they are *not*, we appeal to the eyes and common-sense of his readers and of ours.

Mr. Ledwich however advances to trace these Egyptian ornaments, from Egypt into the northern nations. The Egyptian mythology had crept among the Romans, had spread among their provincials, and had been communicated to their northern conquerors. 'This reasoning,' he remarks, '—gives the so-'lution of the appearance of—hieroglyphics, on ancient northern 'monuments.' Thus the Britons, who had imbibed from the Romans a taste for hieroglyphics in the capitals of their buildings, must have imparted it to their conquerors the Saxons. The Britons must equally with the Gauls have been infected with this taste, by their common masters the Romans. When 'every part of Europe, Asia, and Africa, was—deeply infected*;' when 'enough has been said of these capitals,' even 'to found 'a conjecture that this crypt was an Ireum, or Roman chapel 'sacred to Isis †;' the Britons were sure to be infected. And yet we have been told before, that 'the architecture of the

* P. 183. † P. 879, 180.

'Britons,'

'Britons,' in the very time of the Romans, 'seems to have 'been of the simplest wooden materials;' that 'this Bede, 'Usher, and Spelman testify;' and that 'it is in vain then to 'look for these sculptural ornaments' among *them*, 'which 'more peculiarly belong to stone edifices*.' We *suspected* Mr. Ledwich before to be contradicting himself. We here *feel* the contradictoriness. It is substantial and massy. Nor is this all. The Britons, whose 'architecture seems to have been of 'the simplest *wooden* materials,' had however, as we are contrarily told just afterwards, 'some poor *stone*-fabrics, like those 'of St. Martin and St. Pancras at Canterbury†.' Though 'tis to *foreigners* we are indebted—for those sculptures, which 'so profusely adorn our capitals and arches‡;' yet here we find reason 'to found a conjecture, that the *Britons* had an Ireum, 'or Roman chapel dedicated to Isis,' with 'Egyptian hieroglyphical figures' on the arches§. And though we were previously informed, the 'stone-fabrics' of the Britons had '*no* crypts under 'them;' yet now we see a conjecture concerning the undercroft at Canterbury, that '*this crypt* was an Ireum.'

Mr. Ledwich next gives us 'a new specimen of the Danish 'style‖.' This is taken from 'a small stone-roofed crypt,' under the ruins of the church of Glendaloch in Ireland. 'The 'northern nations,' we are told before, 'from vicinity or intercourse had been long conversant with the superstition of 'Rome;' where a new principle of *vicinity* is introduced, for the Egyptian hieroglyphics passing from the Roman builders, to nations who could not be said to build at all. 'So exactly did 'their ideas assimilate on these heads, that Wormius declares 'one egg does not more closely resemble another, than the '*Egyptian* and *Danish hieroglyphics*¶.' Yet, to our astonishment, we find in *this* 'specimen of the Danish style;' that 'there are '*no traces* of Saxon feuillage,' and that 'the sculptures are 'expressive of the most *savage* and *uncultivated* state of society**.'

We are grieved to make these remarks on an author, whom we respect for his learning, his taste, and his spirit. And we are happy in being able to point out with the most unqualified praise, the concluding part of this essay; in the 'observations 'on the Gothic style, or that of building with pointed arches.' This mode is shewn *not* to be derived from the *Saracens*, as Sir C. Wren supposed, and Bishop Warburton, Mr. T. Warton, and others have united with him in supposing. 'No such

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* P. 166. † P. 167. ‡ P. 168—169. § P. 176.
‖ P. 185. ¶ P. 180. ** P. 185—186.

'Saracenic

'Saracenic works exiſt in Spain or Sicily, or in any other place 'to which the Arabian power extended *.' Nor is it to be derived from the *Goths*. 'In the Gothic age, A. D. 514; and 'under a Gothic prince, Theodoric;' from his orders for repairing the edifices at Rome it appears, that 'the Greek and 'Roman ſtyles, and their moſt correct modules, were admired, 'and *nothing held in eſtimation but the antique*; an evidence for 'ever ſufficient, to overthrow every hypotheſis on this head †.' The pointed arch was known and uſed by the *Romans*. Adrian built a city in Egypt, out of reſpect to the memory of Antinous. 'Pere Bernat made drawings of its ruins, which are in 'the third tome of Montfaucon's Antiquities. Among them 'is *the pointed arch*, not perfectly Gothic, but that called *con-'traſted*. Another contraſted arch appears *in the Syrian M. S.* 'In Horſley are *Roman ſepulchral ſtones* with *pointed arches* ‡.' Yet this arch ſunk into diſuſe among the Romans, and was revived 'about A. D. 1000 §.' Mr. Ledwich finds the 'ſtrait' arch uſed in the ninth and tenth centuries; from the 'churches 'on the coins of Berengarius, King of Italy, and Lewis the 'Pious; and thoſe in the Menologium Græcum, Urbini, 1727.' But, 'on a coin of Edward the Confeſſor, in Camden, is *a pointed* '*arch*.' This Mr. Ledwich thinks Edward ſaw on the continent, and imitated in the iſland; from his known 'attachment 'to the Normans, among whom he was educated.' Mr. Ledwich alſo notices the ſanctuary at Weſtminſter, the ſuppoſed work of Edward, to have had 'pointed arches;' and 'the 'church at Kirkdale, mentioned by Mr. Brooke,' to have 'alſo '*the pointed arch*, and' to be 'of the age of the Confeſſor.' He obſerves additionally from Glaber Rudolph, a Benedictine monk and contemporary; that '*ſome architectural novelty* ſeems 'to have made its appearance at this period.' We think this teſtimony, 'innovari eccleſiarum baſilicas,' peculiarly appoſite and forcible. And 'I ſubmit it with great deference to the 'judgment of the Society,' concludes Mr. Ledwich, 'whether 'the *novum genus ædificandi* of William of Malmeſbury, applied 'to the architecture of the Conqueror's reign, does not imply 'ſomething more than extent and magnificence; and whether, 'to complete the idea of a new ſtyle, we ought not to take in 'the pointed arch and Gothic ornaments ‖.' We have examined the paſſage in Malmeſbury, and concur with Mr. Ledwich in opinion; the *novum ædificandi genus* having no relation to the 'extent and magnificence' of buildings noted before,

* P. 190. † P. 191. ‡ P. 193. § P. 193. ‖ P. 194.

these being confined to private houses, and *that* applied to monasteries and churches; and Malmesbury's *new kind of building* for *such* edifices, being fixed by Rudolph's *innovations* in building *churches*, to a *new style* of architecture for them, and equally to those *in France and Italy* as in *Britain*.

We also recommend the following remark to our readers, as settling very judiciously the point between our two rival historians of music. 'Sir John Hawkins gives us the Giustiniani 'Apollo, playing on a violin with a bow: the body of the in-'strument is somewhat rounder than ours. This statue, Dr. 'Burney informs us, has been proved by Winkelman and 'Mengs to be modern: he thinks the violin and bow, which 'appear on an antique ewer and bason dug up at Soissons, the 'oldest hitherto discovered. Le Beuf, he adds, supposes them 'to be as antient, as the year 752. To the sentiments of these 'eminent scholars and antiquaries I should most readily sub-'scribe,—could I reconcile them with Venantius Fortunatus. 'This writer flourished about the middle of the sixth century, 'and mentions the *Chrotta Britanna* or British *Crwth*. From 'the drawing of this instrument in the third volume of the 'Archæologia, it is plain it was of the fidicinal kind; and the 'transition from this to the violin is easy *.'

'XX. *A Circumstantial Detail of the Battle of Lincoln, 'A. D.* 1217. *By the Rev. Samuel Pegge.*'

This is an account, of which we can but say, that it seems to be as accurate as it is particular. We only remark, that 'the king's party, in their progress to Lincoln, rendezvoused at 'Newark, on Monday in Whitsun week, with white crosses on 'their breasts,' and 'stayed there *three* [illegible] *confessing themselves*, 'and *receiving the sacrament*.'

'XXI. *Some Account of the Brimham Rocks in Yorkshire. 'By Hayman Rooke, Esq.*'

This account, attended by two sets of views for different parts of these rocks, is very curious. But we can stay only to mark one or two points in it. One is 'a rocking stone, the bottom 'of which evidently appears to have been cut away, to form 'two knobs, on which it rests, and moves with great ease.' Another is one of three rocking-stones, which, 'on examin-'ing—, appeared to have been shaped to a small knob at the

* P. 179.

'bottom,

'bottom, to give it motion; though my guide, who was seventy 'years old, born on the moors, and well acquainted with these 'rocks, assured me that stone had never been known to rock. 'The astonishing increase of the motion with the little force I 'gave it, made me very apprehensive the equilibrium might be 'destroyed; but, on examining it, I found it was so nicely ba-'lanced, that there was no danger of its falling. The con-'struction of this equipoised stone, must have been by artists 'well skilled in the powers of mechanics. It is indeed the 'most extraordinary rocking-stone I ever met with; and it is 'somewhat as extraordinary, that it should never have been dis-'covered before, and that it should now move so easily, after so 'many ages of rest.' In a third rock, 'where a road appears 'plainly to have been leading to a hole,' within this 'is a round 'hole, perforated quite through the rock;' in which 'aperture 'a man—is heard distinctly on the north side of the rock, where 'the hole is not visible. The voice on the outside is as dis-'tinctly conveyed to the person in the aperture, as was several 'times tried.' And, upon another rock, 'is a very singular 'figure,' seemingly the *bust* of some person, 'cut in the solid 'rock in high relief.'

'XXII. *Doubts and Conjectures concerning the Reason commonly 'assigned, for inserting or omitting the Words* Ecclesia *and* 'Presbyter *in Domesday-Book. By the Rev. Samuel Denne.*'

In this essay the author argues, and we think with reason on his side, that there were more parish-churches in England, than are noticed in Domesday.

'XXIII. *Observations on the Origin of Printing. By Ralph 'Willett, Esq. F. A. R. S.*'

In the dispute which has arisen concerning this origin, Harlem, Mentz, and Strasburg, have respectively claimed the honour. Mr. Willet is in favour of Mentz. And we think he hath produced strong arguments for his opinion.

'XXIV. *An Account of the Caves of Cannara, Ambola, and Ele-'phanta, in the East-Indies; in a Letter from Hector Macneil, Esq. 'then at Bombay.*'

In this account we are surprised, we are pleased; but we are not taught. This arises from what the author justly calls 'the 'curiously inexplicable' nature of the subject. He describes the caves. And then, for reasons seemingly good in themselves, and yet acknowledged by him to be not quite satisfactory, he ascribes them to the Gentoos of the country.

ART. VI. *Introduction to the Knowledge of Germany; containing Inquiries into the Diſpoſition and Manners, peculiar Habits and Cuſtoms, of the diſtinct Claſſes of Society; Particularities and Anecdotes of their divers Courts, and remarkable Perſonages; a View of their Literature and Learning, Improvements in Arts and Sciences, religious Opinions and ſingular Notions, different Governments, Politics, and Revolutions. With a Variety of other Reſearches, tending to afford a complete Idea of that Country and its Inhabitants during the latter Ages, and at the preſent Time.* 8vo. 4s. boards. Hookham. London, 1789.

THIS author ſets out with reciting the opinions of Tacitus, Bouhours, and Dacier, concerning the capacity of the Germans, and the northern people of Europe. He obſerves that Tacitus, in his account of their anceſtors, ſeems to undervalue their intellectual merit; and that both Bouhours and Dacier have denied them admittance into the province of wit. But the latter of theſe writers has given the like excluſion to all the nations lying north of France, the Engliſh themſelves not excepted. 'The truth is,' as the author now before us obſerves,

'That whatever ignorance or levity may have ſuggeſted, the Germans, for ſeveral ages, and eſpecially ſince the extinction of their civil feuds a century ago, have made a very conſpicuous figure in the republic of letters. Of late years they have conſiderably improved their own tongue, which is bold, manly, and copious. In paſtoral and epic poetry they have produced compoſitions of prime merit. The names of a Brocks, a Kleiſt, a Klopſtock, and a Geſſner, are abundantly ſufficient, without adducing any others, to reſcue them from an imputation of a defect of genius. The tranſlation of many of their works into the languages of the principal nations in Europe, and the applauſe with which they are univerſally read, are inconteſtible proofs of their ſuperior excellence.

'The force and energy of the German compoſitions in proſe is allowed by all who have peruſed them. The emphatical diction of their prayers and ſermons is particularly remarkable. This is a circumſtance which even ſome Frenchmen of note, well converſant in the German language, have been impartial enough to acknowledge. What was ſtill more, they have even confeſſed that the ſtyle and expreſſions of the French were not equal, in point of weight and ſublimity, to thoſe of the German.

'In ſonnets, madrigals, epigrams, and other minute parts of poetry, the Germans have not indeed been hitherto very productive; but this they need not lament, when it is reflected how little ſuch performances contribute to a great reputation.

'Neither have they ſhone in the drama, with that ſplendour which they might have done had they exerted themſelves to bring it to that degree of perfection of which it is evidently ſuſceptible in their language.

language. This is owing to the ſlight encouragement beſtowed upon German originals during a conſiderable period, and to the decided preference given to the tranſlations of the French dramatic writers. It is but of late years the Germans, whoſe diſpoſition and taſte is more congenial to that of the Engliſh than of the French, have adopted the manners and ſpirit of the former on their ſtage. They now diſplay a greater reliſh for the activity and boldneſs of plan, and the pathetic ſublimity, as well as the affecting ſimplicity of Shakeſpeare, than for the regularity and correctneſs of method obſerved on the French theatre: elegance of ſtyle, and beautifulneſs of ſentiments, conſtitute the chief, and often the ſole merit, of the greateſt maſters of the French drama, who thus, in contradiction to an eſſential rule, have ſubſtituted mere dialogue in the place of action.'

This author aſcribes the duration of ſuch an extraordinary and complex a conſtitution as that of Germany, entirely to the placid diſpoſition of the natives, who, he tells us, are a race of mortals peculiarly gifted with that moderation and equanimity which can reſt ſatisfied with any plan of government that is found any ways tolerable. But he admits that they have deviated, in ſome meaſure, from this maxim in religious matters.

'The French,' he obſerves,

'Who are of all people the moſt arrogant and preſumptuous in judging of other nations, have thought proper to aſſert that the Germans are ſlow of apprehenſion, and heavy in their proceedings.

'Herein they are abetted by the Italians and Spaniards. An ambaſſador from the court of Madrid to that of Vienna complained in his diſpatches that he had to deal with a wrong-headed people, ſluggiſh in their conceptions, and of narrow minds; adding, by way of illuſtration, that their underſtandings were like the horns of the goats in his country, little, hard, and crooked. Strictures of the like nature, have not unfrequently been made by the natives of Italy on ſimilar occurrences.

'It may very juſtly be anſwered in behalf of the Germans, that they are uſually very ſolicitous thoroughly to comprehend what they go about, and more intent to ſecure ſucceſs by labour and diligence, than willing to riſque it by hurry and precipitation. This, indeed, is the natural and neceſſary reſult of their phlegmatic diſpoſition; a ſtate of mind that holds the paſſions in a happy ſubjection to reaſon and reflection, by ſubſtituting coolneſs and ſerenity of judgment in the room of impetuoſity and fire of imagination; the ſuppreſſion of theſe making way for that even temperature of the ſoul which enjoys its various ſenſations with calmneſs, and is not eaſily moved from its poiſe.

'This produces a habit of deliberation, which renders the Germans leſs liable to be actuated by violence and temerity in their reſolutions, than many of thoſe who boaſt ſo highly of the ſuperiority of their talents. Hence among many other beneficial conſequences,

proceeds that moderation in their public councils, which reſtrains religious zeal within ſtricter bounds than in moſt other countries in Chriſtendom, and prevents the Proteſtants and Romaniſts from holding each other in ſo much hatred and abhorrence as they unhappily do in other parts.'

In treating of the courts of Germany, the author remarks, that an oſtentatious diſplay of grandeur has at all times been the favourite object of the petty ſovereigns of this country; who, according to his repreſentation, frequently indulge themſelves in travelling, for no other obvious purpoſe than to make an empty diſplay of their equipage and retinue.

The following obſervations ſeem not to be deſtitute of foundation:

'Notwithſtanding the erroneous notions of ſeveral among the German princes in ſome parts of their conduct, and thoſe failures in their judgment of things, of which all men have a ſhare, it muſt be allowed that Germany is the largeſt and moſt advantageous field in Europe for an active genius to move in.

'The number of courts and ſtates wherein employment is to be found, and men of capacity are wanted, opens a noble and ſpacious proſpect to an enterpriſing ſpirit, conſcious of its abilities, and of the probability of ſucceeding with perſeverance and application.

'As each of theſe courts places itſelf on a level of emulation with every other, whoever can forward their reſpective views is ſure of a welcome. As, according to the predominant ſchemes of thoſe who govern, and the diverſity of their purſuits and deſigns, an adequate proportion of talents, equal to the execution of them, is indiſpenſably required, they who poſſeſs them muſt neceſſarily be procured.

'Hence Germany abounds with perſons of excellence in thoſe accompliſhments that qualify a man for civil government, or military command; or that enable him to acquit himſelf with dexterity of thoſe commiſſions which the multiplicity of emergencies incident to a ſovereign court, generally immerſed in political intrigues, is hourly giving birth to.

'So thoroughly do the reſolute and adventuring individuals in the European world ſeem perſuaded of this, that no few of them have at all times conſidered Germany as a very proper and deſirable theatre for a trial of their reſpective capacities. In that of war particularly no other country affords ſuch opportunities to men of bold diſpoſitions and ſuitable genius of making their way to the higheſt honours of their profeſſion. Officers of all nations are found in the military liſts of the ſeveral princes and potentates in Germany, who ſeem wiſely determined to refuſe no encouragement in that line to all who may deſerve it, whatever their country or their religion.'

Credulity, this author affirms, is an epidemical diſeaſe in Germany; and notwithſtanding the phlegmatic diſpoſition which preſerves the Germans from being eaſily impoſed upon in the ordinary

ordinary occurrences of life, they are ſtill ſtrongly diſpoſed to admit the probability of marvellous events. We agree with our author that local prejudices are no where more viſible than in this extenſive country; and we may add, that the pride of noble deſcent is the prevailing foible for which, in general, the people of rank are remarkable. On the whole, the character which this author draws of the natives of Germany, appears, in moſt inſtances, to be well founded. He ſeems to have examined them equally with a candid and diſcerning eye; and his national obſervations are frequently illuſtrated by examples from hiſtory.

ART. VII. *Philoſophical Tranſactions of the Royal Society of London, Vol. LXXVII. For the Year* 1787. *Part I.* 4to. 8s. 6d. ſewed. Davis. London, 1787.

AN inequality, in point of importance, may juſtly be expected in thoſe collections of papers which are formed by voluntary contribution. The part of the volume on which we are now entering, therefore, is not ſo intereſting as the former; but the ſame natural viciſſitude will ſoon again introduce us to ſubjects more gratifying to curioſity.

Article I. An Account of a new Comet. In a Letter from Miſs Caroline Herſchel to Charles Blagden, M. D. Sec. R. S. Miſs Herſchel, during her brother's abſence in Germany, has, to uſe her own expreſſion, 'ſwept in the neighbourhood of 'the ſun in ſearch of comets;' and, on the 1ſt of Auguſt 1786, was ſo fortunate as to diſcover one of them. It reſembled in colour and brightneſs the 27th nebula in the Connoiſſance de Tems, but differed from that ſtar in being round.

Art. II. Remarks on a new Comet. By William Herſchel, LL. D. F. R. S. This comet is the ſame with that mentioned in the preceding article. Dr. Herſchel firſt viewed it on the 19th of Auguſt, at which time it ſeemed to have a very imperfect and confuſed kind of gathered light about the middle, which could hardly deſerve the name of a nucleus. It had, likewiſe, beſides a diffuſed coma, a very faint light towards the north, extending to about three or four minutes, and loſing itſelf inſenſibly.

Art. III. Magnetical Experiments and Obſervations. By Tiberius Cavallo, F. R. S. Mr. Cavallo had the year preceding preſented to the Royal Society an account of ſome magnetical experiments, particularly relative to the magnetiſm of braſs; from which it appeared that moſt braſs becomes magnetic, ſo far as to attract the magnetic needle, by being hammered,

and loſes its magnetiſm by annealing or ſoftening in the fire; but that there is ſome braſs which poſſeſſes no magnetiſm naturally, nor acquires any by hammering. In the account now before us, however, he corrects ſome of the particulars which he had formerly advanced: and afterwards recites farther experiments and obſervations on other branches of the ſame ſubject of magnetiſm. Mr. Cavallo, in proſecuting his experiments on braſs, and alſo platina, had recourſe to the method of Bergman, or that of exploring ſubſtances floating on the ſurface of quickſilver. He put pieces of braſs, or grains of platina, upon the ſurface of quickſilver, and then preſented a ſtrong magnet near them. The reſult of thoſe experiments was, that very ſeldom a piece of braſs, or grain of platina, occurred, which was not affected by the magnet; and even when they were not affected by it, their indifference, as he expreſſes it, was not very clear and deciſive. Indeed there are very few ſubſtances in nature which, when examined by this means, are not in ſome degree attracted by the magnet; ſo general is the diſperſion of iron, or ſuch the tendency which moſt bodies have towards the magnet.

Such braſs as, in the author's former experiments, appeared to have no magnetiſm naturally, nor to acquire any by hammering, was now found to be moſtly magnetic, though in ſo very ſmall a degree as to be diſcoverable only when floating upon quickſilver. The ſame was the caſe with the grains of platina before they were hammered; but, after hammering, their attraction towards the magnet became more evident; whereas thoſe pieces of braſs which naturally had not any degree of magnetiſm ſufficient to affect the needle, nor acquired any by hammering, but yet ſhewed ſome tendency towards the magnet when floating upon quickſilver, never, or very ſeldom, had that tendency increaſed by hammering.

Towards accounting for the variation of the magnetic needle, Mr. Cavallo makes the following obſervations:

'If we collect, under one point of view, all the cauſes hitherto aſcertained, which can increaſe or diminiſh the attraction between magnetic bodies, we ſhall find that the attraction between the magnet and iron, or between magnet and magnet, is increaſed by cooling, by a regeneration of iron or phlogiſtication of its calx, and within certain limitations by the action of acids upon the iron; that this attraction is diminiſhed by heating, and by the decompoſition of iron; and laſtly, that it is probably annihilated by a very great degree of heat.

'Theſe truths being premiſed, it muſt be conſidered, firſt, that, according to innumerable obſervations and daily experience, the body of the earth contains almoſt every where ferruginous bodies in various ſtates and bulks; ſecondly, that the magnetic needle muſt be attracted

attracted by all thoſe bodies, and its ſituation or direction muſt be determined by all thoſe attractions conſidered together, viz. from their common centre of action; thirdly, that by removing or altering the degrees of attraction of ſome of thoſe bodies which are ſituate on one ſide of the magnetic meridian, more than of thoſe ſituated on the other ſide, the abovementioned common centre of attractions, and of courſe the direction of the magnetic needle muſt be altered, which in fact is the variation of the needle; and, laſtly, that this alteration in the attractions of ſome of the ferruginous bodies in the earth muſt undoubtedly take place, it being occaſioned by the parts of the earth being irregularly heated and cooled by the action of volcanoes, which decompoſe or otherwiſe alter large maſſes of ferruginous ſubſtance, by earthquakes which remove ferruginous bodies from their original places, and we may add alſo by the *aurora borealis*; for though we are as yet ignorant of the cauſe of that ſurpriſing phænomenon, it is however certain that the magnetic needle has been frequently diſturbed when the *aurora borealis* appeared very ſtrong.'

Art. IV. Deſcription of a new Electrometer. By the Rev. Abraham Bennet, M. A. This electrometer conſiſts of two pieces of leaf gold, ſuſpended within a glaſs cylinder; but for the particular conſtruction of it we muſt refer to the volume and the plate; where ſome experiments which were tried with it are recited.

Art. V. Appendix to the Deſcription of a new Electrometer. By the ſame. Mr. Bennet here explains the conſtruction of his electrometer, as connected with M. Volta's condenſer.

Art. VI. Some Account of an Earthquake felt in the northern Part of England. By Samuel More, Eſq. The earthquake occurred on the 11th of Auguſt, 1787, about two in the morning. It appears to have extended from Penrith along the banks of Ulſwater and Winander Meer to Mancheſter, where it was ſlightly perceived.

Art. VII. Determination of the Heliocentric Longitude of the deſcending Node of Saturn. By Thomas Bugge, Profeſſor of Aſtronomy in the Univerſity of Copenhagen. The culmination of Saturn was obſerved with a ſix feet acromatic tranſit inſtrument; and the meridian altitude with a ſix feet mural quadrant. From the author's obſervations made with inſtruments, he calculates the right aſcenſion and declination, as well as the geocentric longitude and latitude of Saturn. He next compares the calculations with thoſe of Halley and de la Lande, in which he points out ſeveral errors. From the calculations of the heliocentric longitude of Saturn, and that of the node, it appears that Saturn's paſſage through the node happened on the 21ſt of Auguſt, 1784; and that the heliocentric longitude of his deſcending node = 9s.21° 50′ 8″,5.

Art.

Art. VIII. Description of a Set of Halos and Parhelia, seen in the Year 1771, in North-America. By Alexander Baxter, Esq. These phænomena occurred the 22d of January, about two in the afternoon, at Fort Gloucester, on the river of Lake Superior, six miles above the Falls of St. Mary's, and as much from the mouth of the river. Besides the principal halo round the sun, there was a luminous circle, parallel to the horizon, passing through the centre of the halo, in which were five mock suns. Opposite to the sun was a luminous cross, and in the zenith a semicircle, with the convex part turned towards the sun.

Art. IX. Observations of the Transit of Mercury, May 4, 1786, at Dresden. By M. Köhler.

Art. X. Observations of the Transit of Mercury, at St. Petersburg. By M. Rumovski.

Art. XI. Account of the Strata observed in sinking for water at Boston in Lincolnshire. By Mr. James Limbird. Without specifying the different strata, or the depth of each, we shall only observe that at 474 feet from the surface, chalk and gravel were found; and at 468 feet, salt water was drawn up; circumstances which tend to prove that this part of the island had long been covered by the sea. Should the work be resumed, there is the strongest reason to expect that fresh water will yet be found, and which will rise to the surface.

Art. XII. Observations of Miss Herschel's Comet, in August and September 1786. By the Rev. Francis Wollaston, LL. B. F. R. S. In examining this comet Mr. Wollaston made use of his system of wires, which seems to have answered in a manner not unsatisfactory; and he has given a series of observations on the different stars which the comet preceded or followed.

Art. XIII. An Account of a Thunder-storm in Scotland; with some Meteorological Observations. By Patrick Brydone, Esq. F. R. S. This thunder-storm, which proved fatal to one man, and a few animals, is described by Mr. Brydone with great perspicuity, and with his usual neatness.

Art. XIV. On finding the Values of Algebraical Quantities by converging Series, and demonstrating and extending Propositions given by Pappus and others. By Edward Waring, F. R. S. As this paper consists of a series of depending calculations, it is impossible either to abridge, or give any particular account of it.

Art. XV. Experiments on the Production of Dephlogisticated Air from Water with various Substances. By Sir Benjamin Thompson, Knt. F. R. S. In these Experiments Sir Benjamin Thompson employed raw silk, which is found to collect

collect air rapidly in water exposed to the light. He discovered that light alone, independently of heat, was the efficient cause of the production of air; and that the quantity produced was in proportion to the intensity of light, whether the latter proceeded from the sun, or was collected by mirrors from lamps. Sheep's wool, eider down, hare's fur, and cotton wool, shewed similar properties with silk in regard to the collecting of air. Human hair, and the ravellings of linen, seemed to exert very little power in this respect; but from whatever substance the air was supplied, the water, in consequence of the process, changed to a greenish or a yellowish hue; and the colour appeared to be produced entirely by animalcules.

The air from silk was better than that which was procured from plants in a state of vegetation; and, what was remarkable, the power of the silk did not seem to be exhausted by the repetition of the experiments; nor was its appearance altered in any respect. When the animalcules were formed, pure air was produced even by water itself, without the addition of any other substance.

Art. XVI. An Account of the Discovery of two Satellites revolving round the Georgian Planet. By William Herschel, LL. D. F. R. S. These satellites were discovered on the 11th of January, 1787, in consequence of an improvement made by Dr. Herschel on his telescope, by which it gained more light. So far as he could follow them by his observations, he thinks that one performs a synodical revolution in about eight days and three quarters, and the other in nearly thirteen days and an half.

Art. XVII. Remarks on Mr. Brydone's Account of a remarkable Thunder-storm in Scotland. By the Right Hon. Earl Stanhope, F. R. S. This phænomenon being so well authenticated, his lordship attempts to account for the circumstances attending it by the laws of electricity, the operation of which, in the present instance, he considers as a demonstrable fact.

Art. XVIII. Concerning the Latitude and Longitude of the Royal Observatory at Greenwich; with Remarks on a Memorial of the late M. Cassini de Thury. By the Rev. Nevil Maskelyne, D. D. F. R. S. M. Cassini de Thury, in a memoir presented to the Royal Academy of Sciences, had asserted that the latitude of Greenwich was not ascertained within 15". The astronomer royal, with a becoming zeal of doing justice to the memories of his learned predecessors, and to himself, evinces that the latitude of Greenwich has been fixed with considerable precision. He explains the various methods employed for this purpose, both by his predecessor Dr. Bradley and himself; whence it appears, from a mean of two determinations in different ways, that

that the latitude is 51° 28′ 40″. Dr. Maſkelyne, in examining the cauſes of M. Caſſini's miſtake, imputes it to a paſſage in a memoir of the Abbé de la Caille on aſtronomical refractions, and the latitude of Paris, in the French Memoirs for 1755. It is probable that the error aroſe from ſome little defect in the inſtruments, and the table of refractions employed by the Abbé. The limits of a Review will not permit us to exhibit the numerous remarks and calculations of the Aſtronomer Royal on this ſubject; but we cannot conclude without obſerving that he has conducted the inveſtigation with great preciſion and perſpicuity.

Art. XIX. An Account of the Mode propoſed to be followed in determining the relative Situation of the Royal Obſervatories of Greenwich and Paris. By Major-General William Roy, F.R.S. and A.S. It is impoſſible to convey any adequate idea of this method without the aſſiſtance of the plan which accompanies it; but from the diſtinguiſhed abilities of thoſe who are engaged in the operation, the accuracy of the inſtruments with which they were furniſhed, and the proof of attention which has already appeared in the menſuration of the baſe by the ſame author, we may be aſſured that the relative ſituation of the two obſervatories will be aſcertained with the greateſt exactneſs.

Art. XX. An Account of Three Volcanos in the Moon. By William Herſchel, LL.D. F.R.S. This paper, though ſhort, is, like the other ingenious communications of the ſame author, highly intereſting to curioſity. Dr. Herſchel has, with his teleſcope, diſcovered ſome luminous ſpots on the dark portion of the moon, where they frequently change their appearance, and ſometimes even diſappear. They muſt therefore be produced by ſome active power in the body of that planet; which power, from its light, we may confidently affirm to be fire. Hence Dr. Herſchel, with great reaſon, ſuppoſes thoſe ſpots to be volcanos. The largeſt is judged to be nearly three miles in diameter.

Though our delay in giving an account of the Philoſophical Tranſactions was originally occaſioned by accident, we now have reaſon to think that it has been productive of ſome advantage. For the narrative, being thus regularly continued, affords at leaſt an opportunity of tracing more diſtinctly the progreſs of ſcience. We ſhall therefore proceed in the detail without interruption; and compriſe, in a few more numbers of our Journal, what yet remains unnoticed of the Philoſophical Tranſactions, down to the preſent time.

ART.

ART. VIII. *An Inquiry into the Small-Pox, medical and political; wherein a ſucceſsful Method of treating that Diſeaſe is propoſed, the Cauſe of Pits explained, and the Method of their Prevention pointed out; with an Appendix, repreſenting the preſent State of Small-Pox. By Robert Walker, M. D. Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons, Edinb.* 8vo. 6s. boards. Murray, London; Creech, Edinburgh. 1790.

HOW much the improvement of medicine has been obſtructed by the prejudice of authority, is in nothing ſo conſpicuous as in the ſmall-pox; which, though a diſeaſe almoſt univerſally incident to the human race, and treated by innumerable writers from Rhazes down to the preſent time, yet remains, with regard both to its nature and method of cure, in a ſtate of great imperfection. That the cool regimen is of much importance in this, as well as every other acute diſtemper, is a truth aſcertained beyond all poſſibility of queſtion; but it is not alone ſufficient for ſuppreſſing the violence of thoſe ſymptoms that occur in all the bad kinds of ſmall-pox. Hence the continuance, if not really the increaſe, of mortality which ſtill prevails remarkably in the natural ſpecies of the diſeaſe. From this conſideration the author of the preſent treatiſe has been induced, for many years paſt, to pay particular attention to the worſt kinds of ſmall-pox; on which it muſt be acknowledged that his practical obſervations are tranſcendently judicious and valuable, at the ſame time that they are intimately connected with a theory which ſeems not to be more ſupported by juſt and ingenious reaſoning than by fact and experience.

Dr. Walker begins with reciting the firſt accounts of the ſmall-pox, and opinions concerning its origin. The moſt ancient writers on the diſeaſe are doubtleſs the Arabians; but whether it was a diſtemper indigenous amongſt that people, is a point not poſitively determined. The learned Dr. Freind, as our author obſerves, ſuggeſts the idea that they had probably derived the infection from ſome of the more diſtant regions of the Eaſt; and indeed this opinion ſeems to receive confirmation from the account related by Mr. Holwell, who reſided long in India, where the Bramins appear to have been acquainted with the diſeaſe from a very remote period. The Arabians, from whatever quarter they imported it, brought the diſeaſe at firſt into Egypt, and afterwards carried it, in the courſe of their conqueſts, into Europe. But the great epoch of its diſſemination was the expedition of the cruſades; in conſequence of which we learn, from John of Gaddeſton, an Engliſh phyſician, that the

the ſmall-pox was common in Britain about the end of the twelfth century.

Though every reaſon juſtifies the inference that the remote cauſe of the ſmall-pox is contagion, there are not wanting ſome writers who maintain it to be merely an inflammation, *ſui generis*; obſerving, in ſupport of this opinion, that the diſeaſe frequently invades ſoon after exceſs in eating, drinking, violent exerciſe, or change of air. But it is evident, from this remark, that they confound the remote with the occaſional cauſes. We know that various abuſes of the non-naturals will act in the capacity of the latter; but we have no proof that any thing elſe than variolous particles, viſible or inviſible, can actually communicate the ſmall-pox. Our author juſtly obſerves, that, from the conſideration of this contagion producing no pernicious effect upon thoſe who are not ſuſceptible of the diſeaſe, we cannot reaſonably ſuppoſe it to be poſſeſſed of thoſe virulent and deleterious qualities which have been aſcribed to it by ſome phyſicians; and that, though inflammation be the firſt obvious effect of variolous matter introduced under the cuticle, there appears an evident difference between this and every other inflammatory affection. For, as neither ſimple inflammation, nor the higheſt degree of it, ever proves contagious, it would appear that variolous contagion muſt be endowed with a property diſtinct from every common inflammation, by which it is rendered contagious.

The conſideration of variolous contagion being an animal production, and that a peculiar fœtor conſtantly attends the diſeaſe, are circumſtances which very juſtly induce our author to regard the inflammatory principle of the ſmall-pox as poſſeſſing ſomewhat of a *ſeptic* quality; and for this opinion reſpecting the nature of the variolous contagion, he adduces the following obſervations:

'Every ſpecies of ſmall-pox we are acquainted with, or that have been deſcribed by authors, ſeems to point out the exiſtence of the *inflammatory-ſeptic* principle, from whence they originate. In the contiguous ſpecies, where the puſtules are numerous, a conſiderable degree of inflammation attends every ſtage of the diſeaſe; at the ſame time, the fœtor is very conſiderable, and the ſecond fever is commonly of the putrid kind. In the confluent and more malignant ſpecies, the eruptive fever, and other ſymptoms, indicate great inflammation, and the fœtor conſtant and great. Beſides, we frequently find, that this fever, ſooner or later in the courſe of the diſeaſe aſſumes another type; a ſudden proſtration of ſtrength comes on; the interſtices of the puſtules are occupied with petechiæ, and followed with hemorrhages from the noſe, lungs, uterus, &c. and the fœtor highly offenſive. In every caſe of ſmall-pox, therefore, we have evidence of the preſence of this principle, the mildeſt ſpecies

ſpecies exhibiting ſome degree of inflammation, as well as of the factor peculiar to the diſeaſe. That the various temperaments of mankind have a powerful influence in modifying the ſmall-pox, is beyond a doubt; but when theſe temperaments coincide with the inflammatory-ſeptic principle, the diſeaſe is always violent; hence variolous contagion, meeting either with the phlogiſtic or putrid diatheſis, conſtantly produces a ſevere and dangerous diſeaſe.'

Our author farther illuſtrates his opinion on this ſubject by an experiment and an incident, which likewiſe we think it proper to extract:

'Four ounces of blood taken from a perſon who never had the ſmall-pox, and ſuffered to flow from the vein upon a ſmall quantity of ſal glauberi in powder, and ſtirred till cold to prevent coagulation, was equally divided into two phials. Phial, No. 1, contained the uncoagulated blood; Phial, No. 2, contained the ſame; to which was added a ſmall portion of variolous matter, and ſhaken together. Both phials were placed in a heat of 98°. The reſult of this experiment was, that phial No. 2 acquired a putrid ſmell 48 hours ſooner than phial No. 1.

'The ſame idea reſpecting the inflammatory-ſeptic nature of variolous contagion, is corroborated by a fact which ſometimes occurs in practice; for, while variolous contagion propagates the ſame ſpecific diſeaſe in thoſe that are ſuſceptible of it, in others who have already undergone the ſmall-pox, it occaſions malignant and putrid fevers *.'

In the fourth chapter the ingenious author proceeds to deduce the action of variolous contagion upon the fluids from its obvious effects. This is a very important part of his ſyſtem, and requires to be fully elucidated. He obſerves that the moſt apt idea we can form of the action of this contagion upon the the blood, is that of a ferment. The term, he acknowledges, is liable to exception, as the action inferred does not in every reſpect correſpond with the chemical proceſs from which the analogy is taken. But whatever may be the properties of this contagion, or whatever its operation may be on our fluids, in the production of the ſmall-pox, it evidently acts upon them,

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'* A young woman, a patient in the clinical ward of the Royal Infirmary, ſome years ago, died under a load of confluent ſmall-pox. She was opened, with a view to aſcertain whether there was an eruption of puſtules upon any of the viſcera. Moſt of the ſtudents who attended the diſſection, were ſeized with a malignant fever, and narrowly eſcaped with life; each of them having formerly paſſed through the ſmall-pox, were not ſuſceptible of a ſecond infection. Is it not therefore probable that this fever, with which they were ſeized, was the effect of the inflammatory-ſeptic contagion?'

as other ferments do on the bodies to which they are applied, by aſſimilating a leſs or greater proportion of ſome of the conſtituent parts of the blood into its own nature. This is Dr. Walker's chief reaſon for uſing the term; and in ſuch an uſe of it, he is doubtleſs ſupported by modern writers of the firſt eminence. It is proper, however, on this ſubject, that we ſhould communicate his ſentiments with preciſion. When he aſſerts that variolous contagion acts as a ferment to our fluids, he does not mean, by this action, that the blood is converted into pus, in the ſyſtem of circulating fluids; the production of purulent matter being an effect of inflammatory ſuppuration. 'But,' ſays he,

'How can variolous contagion produce a fermentation in the courſe of circulation, where we muſt ſuppoſe it in a perpetual ſtate of motion? As it is admitted that the contagious particles enter the blood, they muſt neceſſarily mix and unite with ſome of its conſtituent parts; in which caſe, theſe particles will more readily fall into contact with different parts of that fluid, in the courſe of circulation, than if the contagion was confined to one point, and remained in a ſtate of reſt. Variolous contagion is active and penetrating in its own nature, and though its ſubtilty eludes examination, its powerful effects are evident upon the vital fluid, where, inſtead of being extinguiſhed as a ſpark of fire in water, or of rolling on in a friendly conjunction with the circulating maſs, without producing any change upon its ſenſible qualities, we plainly ſee, in every bad caſe of ſmall-pox, from the effects of this contagion upon the vital fluid, a conſiderable ſeparation of ſome of its conſtituent parts, appearing in an accumulation of contagious ichor in the ſyſtem, the quantity of which may be conceived of, by a numerous eruption of pimples over the whole ſurface; by its ruſhing to the head and faucial glands; by profuſe perſpiration, or diarrhœa; or general tumefaction of the body; each of which ſecretions partake of the contagion of the diſeaſe, as ſtreams from the infected fountain, indicate its attenuated ſtate, and ſhew, eſpecially in caſes of the confluent and malignant ſmall-pox, that a conſiderable change has taken place in the ſenſible qualities of the blood.'

The limits of a Review will not permit us to follow the ingenious author through all his arguments relative to the progreſs of variolous contagion in the circulating fluids. We can only ſay, that he eſtabliſhes his theory of a morbid aſſimilation upon ſuch minute and learned inquiry, and ſuch practical facts, as ſeem to leave not the ſmall doubt of the perfect ſtability of his doctrine. Nor has he omitted to inveſtigate, by a number of concluſive experiments, what conſtituent parts of the blood are moſt readily affected by variolous contagion.

Our author, after endeavouring to prove, as far as the nature of the ſubject would admit, that variolous contagion has a certain action

action on the blood, ſome of the component parts of which are aſſimilated into the nature of the contagion, proceeds afterwards to ſhew that different quantities of this contagious ichor are generated in the ſyſtem, in different kinds of ſmall-pox. The evidence which he adduces in ſupport of this doctrine, ſeems to be abſolutely demonſtrative of the fact, and throws great additional light on his general theory of the diſeaſe.

In the ſame chapter in which this intereſting inquiry is proſecuted, the author likewiſe attentively examines the pathological queſtion, Whether the variolous puſtules invade the viſcera and internal parts? ſome writers aſſerting the reality of this phænomenon from their own obſervation, and others no leſs poſitively contradicting it. Dr. Walker aſſures us that, in the different diſſections of variolous patients that he has witneſſed, he has never ſeen the appearance of puſtules upon any of the viſcera, or upon the inteſtinal canal; nor does he think it probable that they can take place in thoſe parts. 'Did variolous puſtules,' ſays he,

'Inveſt the external membrane of the lungs, liver, ſtomach, or inteſtines, and paſs through the common ſtages of inflammation and ſuppuration, we might expect a regular courſe of internal complaints, more urgent and diſtreſſing than what occurs on the ſurface of the body; but we never find this to be the caſe. Beſides, we ſee a certain conſtruction of the cuticle that has an influence in detaining the aſſimilated fluids, that does not exiſt in the membraneous coverings of the viſcera, which are not only preſerved from the effects of the external air, to which the ſkin is expoſed, but conſtantly bedewed with a moiſture that evinces the perviouſneſs of their coats.'

The author next conſiders, at great length and with his uſual accuracy, the prediſpoſition neceſſary to variolous infection; ſhewing, at the ſame time, that two different diatheſes, viz. the inflammatory and putrid are powerful prediſpoſing cauſes towards the reception of the diſeaſe. With regard to the proximate cauſe of the ſmall-pox, he obſerves that we ſhall find few diſeaſes where it appears with more certainty, and conſequently where the indications of cure are more apparent; nor where the mode of treatment, ariſing from thoſe indications, is oftener crowned with ſucceſs. 'The blood,' ſays he, 'in conſequence 'of the action of the variolous ferment, during the ſtage of fer-'mentation, being more or leſs aſſimilated, and the contagious 'particles accumulated in the ſyſtem, we conſider to be the '*proximate cauſe* of ſmall-pox.' It is certain that this view of the ſubject coincides with the hiſtory of the different ſpecies of the diſeaſe, whether mild or malignant.

In the eighth chapter the author deſcribes the ſymptoms preceding eruption, and delivers an accurate hiſtory of the diſeaſe, under the different ſpecies of the contiguous, the ſimple confluent, the putrid, and the cryſtalline ſmall-pox; paſſing over the kind denominated *diſcretæ benignæ*, as being ſufficiently well known.

In the ninth chapter the author proceeds to treat of the indications ariſing from the preceding hiſtories; but we muſt at preſent ſuſpend the examination of this important part of the work, which certainly forms one of the moſt elaborate, intereſting, and uſeful productions of the medical kind that have ever come under our obſervation.

ART. IX. *The Art of Criticiſm, as exemplified in Dr. Johnſon's Lives of the moſt eminent Engliſh Poets.* 8vo. 4s. boards. Hookham. London, 1789.

WHEN we conſider the variety of inducements men have to write, we ſhall leſs wonder that the preſs ſo conſtantly teems. Of thoſe who write for bread, happily for our craft, the numbers are but few; and yet, like moſt others, our trade is perhaps overrun. But the conſtant deſire of novelty might enable us to feed better, were the occupation confined to ourſelves; and did not leiſure, and the misfortune of a liberal education, induce many to give their thoughts to the public from the romantic idea of reforming their manners, or the vanity of improving their taſte. Where the firſt is the only object, it does not become us to cenſure, how much ſoever, in our hungry moments, we may be induced to murmur; but, in the latter caſe, the affectation of novelty or ſingularity, and an impatience of correctneſs, uſually give us ample ſcope to ſnarl, if we cannot bite.

The work before us ſeems the production of a man of leiſure, well educated, and fond of ſingularity; willing to write a book, but too idle to work with ſteadineſs, or to correct what he has written. Though it is not always eaſy to determine whether he is cenſuring or approving, nor preciſely whether he has any meaning at all, we can frequently diſcover an agreeable boldneſs of thought, united with well-turned expreſſions and accuracy of language. Of this mixed kind ſeems his definition of genius, 'A mind vigorous, comprehenſive, and endowed with 'curioſity and ſuſceptibility of impreſſion.' This he oppoſes to Johnſon, who defines the 'true genius a mind of large and 'general powers, *accidentally* determined to ſome particular di'rection.' Neither of theſe is in our opinion ſatisfactory. As

to the laſt, we need only deſire our readers to recollect characters who have ſhewn a ſtrong propenſity to ſome particular art or ſcience, and neither a diſpoſition or capacity for any other. The former is ſo general, that, without being explained by the author, it might be ſuppoſed by ſome to mean the ſame as Johnſon's; for if the doctor's laſt clauſe [accidentally determined to ſome particular direction] were added, the ſenſe would only ſeem more complete. But while we make this objection to our author's expreſſion, we agree with him in opinion, and would propoſe, in his next edition, the addition of a ſingle word: 'A mind 'vigorous, comprehenſive, endowed with curioſity and a ſuſcep-'tibility of *ſome particular* impreſſions.' That this is our author's meaning, he afterwards ſufficiently illuſtrates. The ſtriking difference between him and Johnſon is, that the former aſcribes taſte and fondneſs for any particular purſuit to accident, while the latter conſiders them as ariſing from an *original diſpoſition* and *brought forward* by accidental circumſtances.

As in the preſent work a critique is given of all the poets to whom Johnſon was biographer, we may ſuppoſe many of them are ſhort. The firſt of any length is upon Milton. It begins with a vindication of ſome part of Milton's character, and particularly of his ſmaller performances. After this we have Johnſon's opinion of Paradiſe Loſt, which it is difficult to know whether our author approves or not. It leads him, however, to a ſhort diſcuſſion of metrical compoſitions, in which are ſome forcible arguments in favour of blank verſe. Mrs. Montague's remarks on the ſubject are extracted from her critique on Corneille's Cinna. Theſe are much approved of, but diſmiſſed with a cenſure on their principal beauty. Poor Milton fares no better; he is driven from the ſtage with many more ſevere epithets than Johnſon ventured to beſpatter him with.

To give our readers ſome idea of the ſtyle of this curious medley, we have ſelected the following paſſage, becauſe, being as little connected with the life it is taken from as with any other, no introduction will be neceſſary, nor ſhall *we* be accuſed of concluding abruptly:

'Antitheſes, eſpecially in rhyme, preſent themſelves at once to the mind, like a regular building. Mallet, in his life of Bacon, has ſome ſuch ſtrokes. Voltaire abounds with them, delighting eſpecially to level them at prieſts, whoſe aſſiſtance he is nevertheleſs ſaid to have craved when ſick, though I can hardly believe him to have been ſo weak as to reſt his ſalvation on a ſuborned repentance in the lap of men, who, like indeed other religioniſts, devote their faces to God, and hearts to the devil; and, a few members excepted, ought to be hooted out of the world for their villainous hypocriſy, and will doubtleſs bring the grey hairs of the church with ſorrow to the grave; wretches, whoſe trade it is to barter inheritances in the other

world by auction. If that ſprightly author was deiſtical, I hope it cannot be truly affirmed that he was atheiſtical. If his *Candide* ſeems to bear hard on the goodneſs of Providence, it may be attributed to the reverberation of extremes propagated by others, and to his impatience of Pope's fataliſm, differing from that of others in imputing the diſorders of the world to the Supreme Being; whereas other fataliſts annul his Providence, by ſubſtituting nature in its place; but each ſyſtem alike cuts up morality and virtue by the roots. *Whatever is, is right*, without qualification, is directly contradictory to the fact that evil ever entered the world at all, and of which truth nobody was more ſenſible than Pope himſelf, who was ſo fond of dealing out the appellations of knave and villain, words, I apprehend, without meaning, if *wrong* had never been committed; ſo that the axiom renders Johnſon's culpable repreſentation of Pope's epiſtolary ſatires, that he could not hope to mend the world, true indeed, as it could want no mending. Nevertheleſs, every perſon of ſound piety and religion hopes and believes, that through the controlling providence of God, which ſaid to the ſea, 'Thus far ſhalt thou go and no farther,' all diſorders will be at length rectified, and that all will finally be right. Indeed Johnſon's morality, interſperſed through his biography, is of an indifferent, vulgar, worldly, and warped into a ſuſpicious caſt, that ſeemed to confute Pope's poſition. But indeed, as ſays Shakeſpeare's Timon, thoſe who haſtily blame perſons for being captivated with the blandiſhments of pleaſure, are ſuch as never experienced it. So it may be alledged that Johnſon wrote his rigid precepts of morality when a bulk, not a ſopha, was his ſeat of reſt; that he had been 'a ſlave whom Fortune's tender art with favour never claſped.' For as adverſity is excellently denominated a ſchool, ſo is proſperity a ſnare. However, a man of his underſtanding ſhould at all times have reſerved *ame meliora* for an apology, and not have left the heathen ſtoics, men who, on account of their ſelf-denial, deſerve the appellation of natural Chriſtians, the palm of moral philoſophy.

'Of paradoxes, the former part of the twenty-ſecond verſe of the third chapter of Geneſis, 'And the Lord God ſaid, behold the man (the woman is not mentioned) is become as one of us, to know good and evil'—ſeems to preſent one. Yet may it not be reſolved in this manner? That before their fall, Adam and Eve knew not, were unacquainted with the mixed condition enſuing to the world, having experienced nothing but good, unſophiſticated with evil. As to the latter part of this verſe, 'and now leſt he put forth his hand, and take alſo of the tree of life, and eat, and live for ever,' it is beyond my reſolution; for to interpret it that mankind, how brutal ſoever they are, and like the beaſts that periſh, will not be immortal; or that the wicked will not be ſo, though a ſeemingly deſirable thing, and 'that many are called, but few are choſen,' with ſome few other texts, are to be underſtood in ſuch a ſenſe, ſeems raſh and heterodox. And that Mrs. Piozzi, in her expreſſion that our author's excellence was beyond that of periſhable beings, alluded to that of Scripture, 'like the beaſts that periſh,' is a preſumption ſtill leſs juſtifiable. I may here obſerve that one Francis Oſborn has a curious remark on the words,

words, 'The seed of the woman shall bruise the serpent's head;'—that the meaning might be, that he who should do it, would be born of a woman only.'

To save our readers the trouble of guessing, we acquaint them the above is extracted from a critique on the life of Waller. After this we have a few more lines, in which the name of Waller appears; these introduce Cromwell—fanaticism—Pope's axiom, that mankind are always fools—the Irish propositions—the dragon in the Revelations—and the French king. Then Waller again ventures to shew himself, but is soon drove from the field by Cromwell, Cesar, Sylla, Diogenes, Alexander, and Pompey. Then for a moment behold a race of puritans, and catholics, and priests, for whose numerous tricks, which, by Divine Providence, are made to produce their own cure, we refer our reader to the passage itself; where he will find many merry conceits extracted from the writings of that *queer dog* Francis Osborn. In the life of Dryden is the following pithy little paragraph:

'There is an odd relation that Dryden should think a fit of the gripes necessary to describe a hero in love. Indeed a metaphysician, or a methodist, might benefit the spirit by purging off the gross parts. Soon after we find our author calling his father an old bookseller. He was hardly always old;—though persons have been said to have been born drunk.'

Yet this life contains much serious and just reasoning, a display of true taste, and more candour than we geuerally meet with. The life of Addison has similar claims; it is besides well-connected and interesting. We might say the same of many others; and perhaps impartiality may expect an extract of a different kind from those we have produced; but the use of extracts is to give a specimen of the character of a work; and we conceive what we have offered sufficient for that purpose, as far as relates to the critique on the lives. A conclusion is added, in which Johnson and his works are alternately censured and praised, and this in the true style of antithesis, our author's favourite figure. After accusing 'posthumous editors of making the world the confessor of Johnson's weaknesses, of his methodism, commixed as they were with literary butchery and savageness,' he closes with the following eulogium or apology, or whatever name the reader chooses:

'Of his works; though they have little of originality, and his style has a certain atrabiliousness, and his tissue of paragraphs an unpleasing quaintness, it must be confessed that his Dictionary, Rambler, and the two imitative translations of Juvenal, &c. are very excellent; and that these Lives of the English Poets contain a fund of very valuable general criticism, and that his remarks on Pope's Epitaphs are

ſingularly acute, and for the moſt part juſt. But the coarſeneſs of his conſtitution, his vigorous mind being perhaps vitiated or degraded by the groſſneſs of his body, vibrated not to the delicate touches of a Shenſtone and a Hammond, nor even to the ſtronger hand of a Gray, but gravitated by the weight of that in which it was incloſed to earth. Johnſon's feelings were more ordinary than fine, which indeed accounts for his popularity; more nervous than elevated; and I take Hawkeſworth to have been at leaſt his equal in ſublimity; and that the author of the Adventurer deſerves one hiſtory of his life.'

'Johnſon ſeldom writes to ſupply the fancy; nor viſibly ironically ſo as to diſcover ſuch a purpoſe to the reader; but in a continual jog trot of didactic, allowing no holiday He conſtantly addreſſes himſelf to the underſtanding, makes no excurſions into the regions of ſpirits, beyond 'this viſible diurnal ſphere,' nor eſſays knowledge denied to 'ears of fleſh and blood;' nor even wiſhes to ſtray beyond the walks of mere modern life, back to the regions of Gothic fancy. His timid, impalpable, dreary religion permitted him not to expatiate in the field of hypotheſis and conjecture; reveries, vain perhaps, yet amuſing; the food of the ſoul, and a refuge from the miſeries and calamities of life. Terribly afraid of free-thinking, though not hoſtile to free-eating, he immerſed in dogma and ſuperſtition, fearing to make uſe of reaſon as a mediator between extremes. He had the anxiety and yearning of the Pſalmiſt without the joy and exultation: ſuch as repel from a pleaſant contemplation of the Deity, and inſtead of imparting delight, make men ſhrink back from eternity, and exhibit the idea of death terrible; ſuch as pluck away the roſe buds of ideal hope from the hour of the ſeparation of ſoul and body, and point it only with thorns. But theſe maladies, and his other defects and faults, candour will partially ſet down to his frame of body, ill adapted to a perfect mind, and acknowledge him, with whoſe anecdotes the preſs teemed, to have been no inconſiderable perſon, but a great author, notwithſtanding his Dictionary is imperfect, his Rambler pompous, his Idler inane, his lives unjuſt, his poetry inconſiderable, his learning common, his ideas vulgar, his Irene a child of mediocrity, his genius and wit moderate, his precepts worldly, his politics narrow, and his religion bigotted.'

After the concluſion the author, perhaps ſuſpecting ſome of his readers might be aſleep, treats them with a dream. In this, laying aſide all regard to unities and times, and aſſuming the privilege of a ſituation in which 'inconſiſtencies and inaccuracies 'become natural,' he appears perfectly at home. Johnſon and Warton converſe together, the one alive the other dead, with much pleaſantry, ſome ſtrong traits of character, plenty of ſarcaſm, and ſome genuine wit. On the whole, though we have uſed great liberties with this performance, partly we apprehend from having caught the author's manner by reading him, yet it is but juſtice to admit we have peruſed the greater part of the

the work with pleaſure; and would recommend it to all ſuch who have leiſure to peruſe an unconnected performance as an uſeful appendage to Dr. Johnſon's Lives.

ART. X. *Twelve Sermons, preached on particular Occaſions. By the Rev. Edward Barry, A. M. and M. D. Chaplain to the Right Rev. Lord Biſhop of Kildare.* 8vo. 6s. boards. Bew. London, 1789.

WE have heard a worthy biſhop ſay, with much regret, that *popular* preachers are very ſeldom *good* preachers; and, in the courſe of our experience, we have found ſufficient reaſon to induce us to ſubſcribe to this opinion. Nor is this to be wondered at; on the ſlighteſt examination the cauſe and effect will be found equally obvious. The *few* who are bleſſed with judgment and taſte, are pleaſed only with what is *excellent*, while the *multitude* are caught with what is merely *extraordinary*. With the latter, the whine of tragedy is the true pathetic, and indecent rant the genuine ſublime; the extravagant tones and geſtures of the theatre the quinteſſence of pulpit oratory. Few materials are therefore neceſſary, and thoſe too not of the moſt precious kind, to compoſe this idol of the *many*; a plentiful lack of modeſty, a tolerable figure, and a voice ſtrong and flexible, are all that is requiſite to form a *popular preacher*. No wonder then that the adventurers in this line are ſo numerous, when ſo little ſtock is required, when a thriving trade can be carried on at ſo eaſy a rate. To the younger clergy the temptation is irreſiſtible; they pant after crowded churches, and are intoxicated with *baſtard* fame. They are in due time called upon to preach charity ſermons, &c. where the object is to collect a numerous audience, are hence led to conſider their own merits as of the higheſt order, and with confidence to ſubmit their productions to the ordeal of the preſs. Here the deluſion ends—the verdict of the *hearers* is reverſed—the popular preacher dwindles before the *reader* to his natural littleneſs and inſignificancy.

The peruſal of the Sermons now before us has given riſe to theſe reflections. The author muſt have been conſidered as a popular preacher by his being employed on the ſeveral public occaſions when theſe ſermons were delivered. Let us ſee then how far they juſtify our remarks on this ſpecies of preachers. A clergyman, as the teacher of his brethren, ſhould be a theologian, ſhould be a tolerable reaſoner; and if he frequently attempts metaphor, and all the embelliſhments of rhetoric, he muſt have taſte and judgment to guide him in that dangerous path, otherwiſe what he conceives to be grand and pathetic,

will be abſurd and ridiculous. The following extracts will enable the public to form an opinion of Dr. Barry as a *divine*, as a *reaſoner*, and as an *orator*.

As a *divine* he thus ſpeaks of our Saviour's crucifixion:

'Thus was the dear Immanuel fixed. See the tender Saviour pierced with nails in thoſe parts of his body which are ſo very nervous, and ſo ſuſceptible of torture, and yet delaying death! Bitter cup indeed he drank before; well might he pray his Father, if it were poſſible, to paſs it from him. Here he is left racking and weltering in his blood—none to pity, none to condole him; but all reviling—even a thief who ſuffered with him. Alas! how keen muſt have been his torture! how acute his pangs! Picture to yourſelves the affecting exhibition—What will you think of ſweating great drops of blood with pain? See the mangled Deity worried thus to death, till human nature ſunk down beyond deſcription! Gored thus barbarouſly, he groans in the ſevereſt moment, 'Eli, Eli, lama ſa-'bachthani?'

In the above extract, the expreſſion 'ſee the mangled *Deity* 'worried thus to *death*,' muſt ſtrike every reader with aſtoniſhment, and they will be ready to aſk the preacher where he had diſcovered that *God died* upon the croſs, or how it is poſſible to *mangle* a *deity*? It is true he does not long adhere to this extraordinary hereſy, but ſoon recants, and tells us, 'Thus *ended* 'the *human nature* of this divine and glorious character.' But we are afraid that, in renouncing one theological error, Dr. Barry has fallen into another; for the *human nature* of Chriſt did not end with his death on the croſs, but was for ever united with the divine nature. At leaſt ſo ſaith the New Teſtament, and ſo likewiſe ſaith the Church of England in the following words: 'The godhead and manhood were joined together in 'one perſon, *never to be divided*.' Againſt ſuch opponents we ſuſpect the doctor will hardly be able to keep the field.

We ſhall next lay before the public a ſpecimen of the doctor's *reaſoning*. In a ſermon preached to the convicts in Newgate, he thus addreſſes them:

'See the loving Saviour longing to embrace his long-loſt children! Behold his flowing tears! hearken to his expiring groans! it was all for you!

'Fly to his expanded arms; he longs, he waits to be gracious! Go, contrite beggars, to the riches of his grace, and take every ſupply for glory! Stand off, thou proud-ſtrutting phariſee, and make room for that poor dejected publican; that Mary Magdalen, that wicked Manaſſeh, that perſecuting Saul, that poor convicted criminal, and even that thief, ſhall this day be with me in paradiſe! What a noble defence is this to put up at the bar of heaven! what a glorious ſubject is this to ſpeak on, 'That the blood of Chriſt cleanſeth

cleanſeth us from *all* ſin;' only believe on the Lord Jeſus Chriſt, and all this is yours!

'Surely you are ready to ſay, 'Lord, I believe, help thou my unbelief.' Encourage then, I pray you, by earneſt prayer to the throne of divine grace, that God will further your deſires more and more; be reſtleſs in prayer, that you may have ſome comfortable token before you go hence and be no more ſeen, that your ſins are waſhed away in the rich ſtreams of mercy!

'Here is the bleſſing of the goſpel, that mercy triumphs over juſtice! Only let our triumph be ſafely founded, let us be made acquainted with the victorious Captain of our ſalvation; let us not raiſe up the banners of triumph on preſumption, nor drop them through deſpondency.

'I hardly know what more to ſay to you; I cannot give you faith, for that is the gift of God; but whoſoever ſincerely petitions for it, will not be denied; and whoever has it, muſt be ſaved to all eternity!'

After having thus cheered them with hopes of ſalvation through faith in Chriſt, towards the cloſe of his diſcourſe he totally extinguiſhes every ray of hope, and dooms them to eternal perdition, in the following deciſive words: 'And now, my poor 'and miſerable fellow-ſinners, what more ſhall I ſay to you? 'How ſhall I bid you *farewell to all eternity!*' p. 104. We ſhall ſuppoſe that, after all his warm exhortations to truſt and confidence in the merits of Chriſt, he himſelf deſpaired of the ſalvation of his hearers; yet, was it proper, was it decent, was it not the exceſs of cruelty to tell them, by this extraordinary farewell, that they were to be eternally damned? If we take this puzzling dilemma by the other horn, the conſequences lead equally to perdition; for if we ſuppoſe that Dr. Barry thought the convicts were to be *ſaved*, and yet bade them an *eternal* farewell, as the Church of England admits no *middle ſtate*, we muſt conclude that he, at the time, believed *he* was *not to be ſaved* *. In ſhort, matters are ſo badly managed, that the damnation of the preacher or of the hearers, muſt unavoidably be ſuppoſed. We dare ſay that the doctor, by his *farewell to all eternity*, had no intention of leading to ſuch a concluſion; but unluckily it is the only one that can follow from the premiſes.

As an *orator*, the preſent author is equally faulty. His endeavours to ſoar only render his weakneſs more conſpicuous; we have ſeldom met with more unſucceſsful attempts in the figurative and ornamental ſtyle. A few inſtances will convince our

* This ſurely, at beſt, was an imprudent avowal, and not likely to impreſs his audience with reverence for the preacher, or confidence in his doctrine.

readers

readers of the truth of what we advance. In his ſermon on the 5th of November he thus inveighs againſt popery:

'And though the poiſonous venom of papal power and principle cannot at preſent ſhew its teeth, yet what ſhall hinder that combuſtible, that alarming matter, from re-ſuppurating, and once more burſting forth? For the principles of the Romiſh church are the ſame, her documents the ſame, and human nature is the ſame. But thanks be to God that opportunity is not the ſame! For where pride is to be intereſted, or ambition gratified, the ſecret language with too many is, like the huſbandmen in the goſpel, 'Let us kill him, that the inheritance may be ours;' let us wade through all, ſet every feeling that ought to dignify our nature at defiance, and with daring effrontery laugh at and inſult the nobleſt ſentiments of humanity, of virtue, and of juſtice! Such ambition is ſo paltry, that what can you mention too mean for its attention, if for its gratification? it will cringe to the dunghill, or it will dragoon the palace; it will ſacrifice a friend, a family, a kingdom, if ſhe can but hector with ignominious triumph. To taſte the poiſoned hateful honey, ambition will ſuck it from the moſt painful thorn—from her fawning ſmiles—adulation, and homage as your vaſſal, your ſervant, your ſlave, your friend, your martyr, your any thing. Nurſe but her wiſhes, cheriſh but her hopes, and like the viper ſhe will corroſively ſting the very boſom which gave her heat. If the brilliancy of virtue in her moſt delightful attire; if the bleeding tears of grief and humanity melting through every pore, and piercing every ſenſe; if religion, gemmed round with all the dazzling enchanting ſtars of the pureſt heaven, ſhould ſtand gazing one moment with ſilent horror at the unrelenting havock of pride and ambition; even on theſe they would glut their inglorious revenge!'

In this extract we have '*the poiſonous venom of papal power* '*ſhewing its teeth*,' and in a moment this *venom* is transformed into '*combuſtible* matter,' which '*re-ſuppurates*.' Venom perſonified *may* have teeth, but the venom of papal power can have none; and we are well convinced that the *ſuppuration* of *combuſtible* matter is a new diſcovery, hitherto unknown to the greateſt adepts in chemiſtry. In the concluding ſentence of the extract, the author has ended as he began. As he gave *teeth* to the venom of papal power, he has beſtowed *eyes* on 'the *brilliancy* of virtue,' and on 'the *bleeding tears* of grief and humanity'—'the brilliancy of virtue in her moſt delightful attire—the bleeding tears of grief and humanity, melting through 'every pore, and piercing every ſenſe—ſtand *gazing!*' But what is it that ſuch an orator cannot perform? It is needleſs to proceed; almoſt every page diſcovers the want of taſte and judgment of the author; we are told of ſeeing our Saviour 'through the *windows* of faith;' of the Almighty ſending his thunder

thunder to 'rattle' the foundations of a priſon;' with a long et cetera of expreſſions which debaſe the ſublimity of Chriſtianity.

To have dwelt ſo long on a publication which might have been diſmiſſed with much leſs ceremony, appears at firſt ſight unneceſſary; but when it is conſidered that, in examining with ſome attention the Sermons of Dr. Barry, we have been deciding on the merits of what is termed *popular preaching*, we truſt that the intelligent public will not think our time has been totally miſapplied.

It would be unfair to the author not to give his *advertiſement for a benefice*, which he has introduced in his 'Addreſs to the 'Reader:'

'Having thus much ſaid, he begs here to make a ſerious propoſition to patrons of church preferment.

'The author almoſt deſpairs of perſonal intereſt to ſecure him even a ſmall living! With reſpect to his doctrine, and pretenſions as a preacher, the world may form ſome idea from what he hath written in this book. Now, if patrons, in the diſpoſal of their favours, really conſult the good of their fellow-creatures, and ſhould ſuch be convinced of the many advantages reſulting to a pariſh in a clergyman thus fitted, he here pledges himſelf, that if honoured by an appointment as rector or vicar of any church, no matter the country nor the diſtance, that he will then, not only to the utmoſt of his power, faithfully and conſcientiouſly diſcharge the ſacred duties of his order, but will cheerfully be ready, at all times, to ſerve his poor pariſhioners with every poſſible advice and attention, without gratuity or fee!'

We have only now to conclude with informing the public that this work conſiſts of twelve ſermons, ſix dedications, an addreſs to the reader, a liſt of ſubſcribers, and a tolerable head of the author.

ART. XI. *The Village Curate; a Poem.* Small 8vo. 4s. ſewed. Johnſon. London, 1788.

WE are at a loſs to characteriſe this eccentric poem. It is grave and gay, ſolemn and ludicrous, deſcriptive, ſatirical, moral, critical, &c. &c. The matter and manner are equally various, and often ſhock the reader by their diſcordancy. The writer has clothed himſelf in a garb made up of patches from the mantles of Thomſon, Young, and Milton, in which he would have made a very decent appearance, had he not at the ſame time put on the galligaſkins of the author of the Splendid Shilling.

Shilling. But he has fairly told us that he will do as he pleaſes; and if he chooſes to appear in maſquerade we cannot help it.

> 'I love my liberty; and if I ſing,
> Will ſing to pleaſe myſelf, bound by no rule,
> The ſubject of no law.'

The *Village Curate* might have received any other title with equal propriety; for Alcanor, the curate, and his concerns, conſtitute a very inconſiderable part of the poem. It is in fact reflections on inanimate and animated nature, throughout the four ſeaſons of the year, interſperſed with whatever this diſcurſive and deſultory muſe choſe to appropriate as ſhe went along.

Without farther remark at preſent, the author ſhall ſpeak for himſelf. The following extract, in which Young ſeems to be the archetype in view, though the topic and thoughts are common-place, yet is not deſtitute of merit:

> 'Come hither, fool, that vainly think'ſt
> Thine only is the art to plumb the depth
> Of truth and wiſdom. 'Tis a friend that calls,
> And has ſome honeſt pity left for thee,
> O thoughtleſs ſtubborn ſceptic. Look abroad,
> And tell me, ſhall we to blind chance aſcribe
> The ſcene ſo various, ſo fair, and good?
> Shall we no farther ſearch than ſenſe will lead,
> To find the admirable cauſe that ſo delights
> The eye and ear, and ſcatters all about
> Ambroſial perfumes? O! there is a hand
> That operates unſeen, and regulates
> The vaſt machine we tread on. Yes, there is
> Who firſt created the great world, a work
> Of deep conſtruction, complicately wrought,
> Wheel within wheel; tho' 'tis in vain we ſtrive
> To trace remote effects thro' the thick maze
> Of movements intricate, confus'd, and ſtrange,
> Up to the great Artificer that made
> And guides the whole. What if we ſee him not?
> No more can we behold the buſy ſoul
> That animates ourſelves. Man to himſelf
> Is all a miracle. I cannot ſee
> The latent cauſe, yet ſuch I know there is,
> That gives the body motion, nor can tell
> By what ſtrange impulſe 'tis the ready limb
> Performs the purpoſes of will. How then
> Shall thou or I, who cannot ſpan ourſelves
> In this our narrow veſſel, comprehend
> The being of a God. Go to the ſhore,
> Caſt in thy ſlender angle, and draw out

The

The huge Leviathan. Compreſs the deep,
And ſhut it up within the hollow round
Of the ſmall hazel nut. Or freight the ſhell
Of ſnail or cockle, with the glorious ſun,
And all the worlds that live upon his beams,
The goodly apparatus that rides round
The glowing axle-tree of heav'n. Then come,
And I will grant 'tis thine to ſcale the height
Of wiſdom infinite, and comprehend
Secrets incomprehenſible; to know
There is no God, and what the potent cauſe
That the revolving univerſe upholds,
And not requires a deity at hand.
'O tell me not, moſt ſubtle diſputant,
That I ſhall die, the wick of life conſum'd,
And ſpite of all my hopes drop in the grave,
Never to riſe again. Will the great God,
Who thus by annual miracle reſtores
The periſh'd year, and youth and beauty gives,
By reſurrection ſtrange, where none was aſk'd,
Leave only man to be the ſcorn of time
And ſport of death? Shall only he one ſpring,
One haſty ſummer, and one autumn ſee,
And then to winter irredeemable
Be doom'd, caſt out, rejected, and deſpis'd?
Tell me not ſo, or by thyſelf enjoy
The melancholy thought. Am I deceiv'd?
So let me be for ever. If I err,
It is an error ſweet and lucrative.
For ſhould not heav'n a farther courſe intend
Than the ſhort race of life, I am at leaſt
Thrice happier than thee, ill-boding fool,
Who ſtriv'ſt in vain the awful doom to fly
That I not fear. But I *ſhall* live again,
And ſtill on that ſweet hope ſhall my ſoul feed.
A medicine it is, that with a touch
Heals all the pains of life; a precious balm,
That makes the tooth of ſorrow venomleſs;
And of her hornet ſting ſo keen diſarms
Cruel Adverſity.'

The extract that follows does credit both to the head and heart of the author:

'O undeſerving parent, that neglects
To train the infant boy to deeds humane.
See how his ſports, his paſtimes, deareſt child,
Are all to be indulg'd, whether he chooſe
To whip his nurſe, to laſh the ſleeping puppy,
Or pinch the tail of unoffending puſs.
Go, catch the ſurly beetle, and ſuſpend

The

The harmleſs pris'ner by the wing or tail
To make the booby laugh. But if ſo loud
His well-deſerv'd rebuke, the timid child
Stands off alarm'd, then let him ſee thee cruſh
The thing he fears. Or give it liberty,
Not unconſtrained, as heav'n beſtow'd it. No,
Set the gall'd pris'ner free, but lock his chain
Full-faſt about him. Drive him to the field,
But pluck no arrow from his ſide. He's gone,
And feels that liberty is wond'rous ſweet,
Tho' the crook'd pin faſt fixt, and trailing thread,
Admit no remedy. Awhile he lives—
His thread clings faſt—he flutters, faints, and dies.
Go, Tom, a ladder bring, and reach the neſt.
'Tis nothing but a ſparrow's, and 'twill ſerve
To pacify the boy. What if the dam
In patient expectation ſits, and hopes
Another day ſhall all her cares reward,
And bring to light her helpleſs progeny?
Forth from her high maternal office dragg'd
With rude indignity, behold ſhe comes
A joyful victim to the callous boy.
He with delight her ruffled plumes ſurveys,
Seizes her neſt, and the dear charge purloins;
Then with a frantic laugh down drops the eggs,
And blindfold hops to cruſh them as he goes.
Ah! hapleſs bird, yet happy ſtill if this
Be all the pain thy cruel foe intends.
Ah! what avail'd thy labour of an age
To weave the genial neſt, with many a root
And many a ſtraw far-fetch'd? 'Twas all in vain.
Half-ſtarv'd Grimalkin claims thee for his prey,
And in his cruel paw faſt-clutch'd devours
Relentleſs. Or the boy aware, himſelf
Cuts ſhort exiſtence, and allots to puſs
Only the ſever'd head. Ingenious fool,
Pert executioner, behold the blood
Of parent and of offspring. Grin amain;
O! thou haſt done a deed that Heav'n abhors.
Let the wiſe parent laugh to ſee how well
His looby boy has learn'd to be humane.
Let him applaud the bloody deed, and ſpare
The well-earn'd rod. In thee, great ſtate,
Eternal glory of the Gentile world,
Juſt Athens, had the beardleſs boy preſum'd
A deed ſo villainous, the public arm
Had the mean youth chaſtis'd, till it had wak'd
A ſoul humane and ſenſible of wrong.

The ſubjoined ſpecimen will give the reader no unfavourable idea of the writer's deſcriptive powers:

'Alcanor

'Alcanor come, and let us once again
Descend into the valley, and enjoy
The sober peace of the still summer's eve.
We have no blush to lose; our freckled cheek
The sun not blisters, nor the night-dew blasts.
Such is the time the musing poet loves.
Now vigorous imagination teems,
And, warm with meditation, brings to birth
Her admirable thought. I love to hear
The silent rook to the high wood make way
With hissing wing; to mark the wanton mouse,
And see him gambol round the primrose head,
'Till the still owl comes smoothly sailing by,
And with a shrill *to-whit* breaks off his dance,
And sends him scouring home; to hear the cur
Of the night-loving partridge, or the swell
Of the deep curfew from afar. And now
It pleases me to mark the hooting owl,
Perch'd on the naked hop pole, to attend
The distant cataract, or farmer's cur
That bays the northern lights or rising moon.
Then let me steal along the woody lane,
To hear thy song so various, sweet bird,
The queen of night, transporting Philomel;
I name thee not to give my feeble lines
A grace else wanted, for I love thy song,
And often have I stood to hear thee sing,
When the clear moon, with Cytherean smile,
Emerging from an eastern cloud, has shot
A look of pure benevolence and joy
Into the heart of night. Yes, I have stood
And mark'd thy varied note, and frequent pause,
Thy brisk and melancholy mood, with heart
Sincerely pleas'd. And, O! methought no note
Can equal thine, sweet bird, of all that sing,
How easily the chief! Yet have I heard
What pleases me still more; the human voice
In serious sweetness flowing from the heart
Of unaffected woman. I could hark
Till the round world dissolv'd, to the pure strain
Love teaches, gentle Modesty inspires.
But teaze me not, ye self-conceited fools,
Who with a loud, insufferable squall
Insult our ears, or hum a noiseless tune
Disdaining to be heard; the while ye grin,
To shew a set of teeth newly repair'd,
Or shrink and shrug, to make the crowd admire
Your strange grimaces practis'd at the glass.
O! I abhor it. I had rather hear
A pedlar's kit bescrape a dancing dog.'

The

The concluſion of this extract affords an example of what we before remarked, viz. that the author frequently debaſes his compoſition by blending the ſolemn and ludicrous, the common, the vulgar, with the ſublime. Had the paſſage above quoted ended with 'gentle modeſty inſpires,' it would have been more perfect. What follows ſtrikes like a harſh diſcord in muſic, and every ſerious idea is baniſhed by the ludicrous imagery preſented in the laſt line. This fault runs through the whole of the publication; out of many we ſhall ſelect one more example. The poet has thought proper to introduce a dirty, ugly ſervant maid into his poem; he has choſen this

> 'Surpaſſing Dorothy, the *ſweeteſt* thing
> Theſe *bitter* times afford'——

for his dulcinea, and ſays that, 'like the ſtingleſs drone, which 'ſeeks the fane of *Cloacine*, he will ſing her beauties.' He then goes on to praiſe her 'vaſt becoming ſtrides, her aukward 'majeſty, her ſwinging arms, like the handles of a pump,' he calls her 'queen of neglect and dirt;' he then proceeds to deſcribe her 'formidable row from ear to ear of never-cleanſed 'teeth, her broad hyſteric grin, her ſhining face, her greaſy 'locks,' &c. &c. He next compares his Dolly to 'the flaunt-'ing belle,' and gives the preference in every reſpect to Dolly. Her teeth, he ſays, are all her own, thoſe of the faſhionable fair purchaſed of the dentiſt; her breath is ſweet, theirs offends with ſuch a 'fœtid ſtench,' that, were it not for perfumes,

> 'We could not live within a thouſand leagues
> Of ſuch a fearful peſt.'

Dolly's 'locks,' though 'greaſy,' we are told, grew on her, but theirs were 'bought of ſome louſy wench.' Having exhibited this dirty and diſagreeable picture, he next compares the mental qualities of each, and prefers thoſe of his favourite dulcinea. The concluſion, following the creed of the celebrated Bays, was intended we ſuppoſe to 'elevate and ſurpriſe'—it does indeed excite wonder:

> ——— 'You write, perhaps, and read:
> To what good purpoſe? to corrupt the ſoul,
> To give it back to him who gave it you,
> So ſpotted, as to make his angels bluſh,
> And cauſe the Deity himſelf to turn
> And hide his countenance.'

Whatever a headſtrong bard, who is 'bound by no rule, and 'ſubject to no law,' may imagine, we cannot approve of this ſerio-comic aſſemblage, this *ſeria mixta jocis*; nor do we think it

it will meet with the approbation of any reader of taſte. After this diſguſting mixture of his 'lovely Lulage, his Sugariſſa, his 'dear Dorothy' with angels and the Deity, it is not ſurpriſing that he ſhould debaſe the Supreme Being to an '*electrician*,' and ſpeak of his '*charging* and *recharging* his dreadful battery.'

Having marked the ſtriking features of the Village Curate, to dwell on minute and verbal criticiſm is needleſs. The vulgariſm *lay* inſtead of *lie*, we think occurs more than once in this publication; and proſaic lines, ſuch as the following, are not unfrequent:

> 'As carrots, parſnips, onions, cabbages,
> Potatoes, turnips, radiſhes, my muſe
> Diſdains not.'——

Upon the whole, though we have found a good deal to blame in this performance, yet the author diſcovers marks of genius, which, when matured by time, may produce ſomething more worthy of public approbation. He himſelf does not ſpeak highly of the preſent work, and ſays that 'applauſe were ill de-'ſerved by this rude ſong obtain'd.' Like Milton, he builds his hopes of immortality on his future labours:

> '————Yet I not fear,
> Ere the ſhort tale of my exiſtence cloſe,
> Some ſtrain perhaps, on my time mellow'd harp
> To hit, theſe woods may well remember.'

The hopes of Milton were fully realiſed; may thoſe of the author of the Village Curate not be diſappointed!

ART. XII. *Obſervations occaſioned by the Attempts made in England to effect the Abolition of the Slave-Trade; ſhewing the Manner in which Negroes are treated in the Britiſh Colonies in the Weſt-Indies; and alſo ſome particular Remarks on a Letter addreſſed to the Treaſurer of the Society for effecting ſuch Abolition, from the Rev. Robert Boucher Nicholls, Dean of Middleham. By G. Francklyn, Eſq.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. ſtitched. Jamaica, printed; London, reprinted. Walter, 1789.

AS every man claims the privilege of being heard in his own defence, the advocates for the ſlave-trade ſeem particularly deſerving attention, on account of their diſtance from the ſeat of legiſlature, which is about to determine the fate of this branch of commerce, and of the too general odium in which it is involved by men who think very little further on the ſubject

than how far any propoſed reſtrictions may affect their own intereſt. Though the pamphlet before us contains much ſeverity, and is not in every part correct, yet the firſt, it will be allowed, is not unprovoked, and the latter no where obſcures the meaning.

Our author begins with ſhewing that ſlavery was permitted, inaſmuch as it was regulated, under the Moſaic diſpenſation. The unimproved ſtate of ſociety in the Eaſt at that period of the world, might render ſlavery the only means of ſubordination; and the well-known imperfection of the law ſhould not prevent thoſe who are bleſſed by a more perfect revelation from drawing moral inſtitutes from the former code. Though the letter of the goſpel takes no particular notice of ſlavery, Mr. Francklyn very honeſtly admits that the equality of rank propoſed by its teachers, ſeems very inconſiſtent, not only with ſlavery, but with moſt of the inſtitutions in Chriſtian countries. He therefore adviſes the Chriſtian advocate to conſider the ſituation of the Britiſh ſoldier and ſailor, the former of whom in particular is often trepanned from the bleſſings of ſociety, and forced, *for life*, into a more abject ſlavery than the negroes ever experience; and the latter, to whom the ſtate owes ſo much, is never for a moment in the ſecure poſſeſſion of all that renders ſociety endearing. On the ſubject of maltreating the ſlaves, we are directed to compare the few inſtances that the moſt zealous induſtry has been able to produce, in ranſacking the annals of more than a century, and in the circuit of all the Weſt-India iſlands, with the number of crimes annually perpetrated in Great-Britain. It is urged, that if the native inhabitants of tropical countries are invariably found milder and more inoffenſive than thoſe nearer the poles, it is but reaſonable to conclude climate muſt do ſomething towards ſoftening the manners of thoſe who conſtantly reſide in the former; and that however iraſcible indolence and indulgence may render them, the few inſtances produced, ſhew they are not chargeable with ſeverity or cruelty. That the conduct of ſuch as reſide in England is uſually marked with tenderneſs to their ſervants, and often a blameable inattention to thoſe prudential motives which occaſion the ſeverity exerciſed towards inferiors. That, were it otherwiſe, common prudence would induce every Creole to be as careful of the health and life of a ſlave as an Engliſh farmer is of his live ſtock; and if ſome occaſional ſeverities are heard of, they muſt be imputed partly to the imperfection of human nature in the iſlands as well as every where elſe, but particularly to the ſpontaneous or conſtrained migration of every European, whoſe connexions find him unfit to live in England.

To

To place the matter in a fair point of view, our author gives us, we doubt not, a very faithful account how negroes are treated in the Weſt-Indies. When we contraſt with this the ſtate of the labouring poor in our own iſland, we muſt admit with him the hard fate of the latter. But though the negro is better fed, and better attended in ſickneſs, there are certain wants peculiar to climate and temperament, in the ſatisfying of which he is conſiderably abridged. Between the tropics labour is every where painful to the human race, and moſt other animals. The native inhabitants of theſe iſlands lived on the ſpontaneous productions of the earth, and paſſed a life of indolence, and the few enjoyments it brings with it. The ſucceſſion of daily labour, at ſtated hours, in ſuch a climate, and to men accuſtomed to a quick ſucceſſion of events, may be the moſt painful of puniſhments. But when our author relates the ſtate of the female ſlave during pregnancy, and the manner in which the huſband and wife live together, he very candidly acknowledges the backwardneſs of the planters to purchaſe females. We learn farther that of ſlaves brought over, not ſo much as a third part are females, and among them many are paſt childbearing. Mr. Francklyn ſurely will not contend that the ſtate of an uninformed negro in the torrid zone can be happy under theſe reſtraints.

The aſſertion that the negroes are neglected in their religious concerns, is next warmly confuted; and the want of increaſed population is referred not to ſeverity of treatment, but to a paucity of females, their conſequent promiſcuous intercourſes, and a habit of ſuckling their children for two years.

The aſſertion of the Dean of Middleham, that the merchant is anſwerable for all the blood ſpilt in the wars among the negroes in Africa, is we think got rid of, rather than anſwered. It is not for us to determine what would be the fate of captives, did not the Engliſh purchaſe them; but we cannot eaſily believe, where the principal ſource of wealth is the human race, that an uncultivated people will not make war for the purpoſe of making ſlaves, as the Europeans do, to extend their commerce. As juſtice is ſuperior to all other conſiderations, we ſhall take no notice of our author's prudential cautions to Great-Britain, if ſhe wiſhes to preſerve her iſlands. But his claim of retribution in behalf of himſelf and fellow-iſlanders is ſo fair that we ſhall conclude by tranſcribing it:

'If the ſlaves at preſent in the iſlands are ſet free, their ruin will be immediate. If the ſlave-trade is aboliſhed, their produce will in a few years be annihilated. The planter knows too well the impoſſibility of inducing white men to attempt ſupporting the labours of the field in this part of the world, to conſent to the experiment

being tried at his expence. If the petitioners or the public are willing to run the risk, the planters will not, I dare say, make any objections to it, but cede their property to be conducted according to any new mode which shall be adopted, on being paid a reasonable price for their property. Should such proposal be approved of, it may not be improper to state what will probably be the amount of the planters claims on the public:

It is generally believed that the number of negroes, and other slaves, in the several British sugar islands, are about 450,000, which, at 50l. sterling per head, amounts to - - - - - -	22,500,000
The land they cultivate, with the buildings thereon, is moderately estimated at double the value of the slaves - - - - - -	45,000,000
The land in wood, which in some of the islands government has sold for considerable sums of money, and which is particularly valuable for supplying timber for repairs of sugar-works, mills, houses, &c. and which the present possessors have paid large sums for; houses in the towns, in the several islands, cattle, horses, mules, carts, &c. &c. will not be surely considered as estimated highly at - - - -	2,500,000
Total	70,000,000

'The whole then will amount to the sum of about *seventy millions* sterling. It may be difficult for the public to find means, at this juncture, to raise so large a sum of money, especially as the abolition of the West India commerce, if the new plan of cultivation should fail, will occasion a very considerable diminution of the national revenues. But the wealth of this world is unworthy the regard of such pious men as our petitioners; '*fiat justitia, ruat cælum,*' says the Dean of Middleham.'

There is certainly justice in this requisition; for if the British legislature conceives itself empowered to restrain the commerce, and annihilate the wealth of her colonies, they have a right to expect an indemnity in proportion to their losses, and the security with which they first hazarded their capitals and lives.

ART. XIII. *An Inquiry into the Origin, Progress, and present State of Slavery; with a Plan for the gradual, reasonable, and secure Emancipation of Slaves. By a Member of the Society of Universal Goodwill in London and Norwich.* 8vo. 1s. Murray. London, 1789.

ONE peculiar circumstance seems to mark all reformations, whether in politics, morals, or religion. In proportion as the inhabitants of any country are by climate, custom, or other circumstances, more or less generally addicted to the old prac-

tice, is the ſpirit of reformation greater or leſs. Perhaps to climate and cuſtom, rather than any original purity of manners, we ſhould aſcribe the almoſt univerſal abhorrence in which ſome very degrading vices are held in this and other northern countries. To the ſecurity in which thoſe who have never been in a ſimilar ſituation feel themſelves, we may often trace the general obloquy in which the wealthy Aſiatic adventurers are involved, and the inconſiderable number who are engaged in the ſlave-trade, compared to the community at large, may be at leaſt among the cauſes of the general outcry in favour of our ſable brethren. It muſt, however, be confeſſed that few are fair judges in their own cauſes; and this ſpirit of criminating others is often uſeful, by inducing the accuſed parties to remind their accuſers of ſimilar inconſiſtencies in their own conduct. Moſt cordially were it to be wiſhed that not only the ſtate of the negro ſlave may be meliorated by favourable inſtitutions, but that their advocates would be convinced how much remains to be done at home; how much the ſtate of ſociety among the labouring poor might be improved by the example of their betters, a proper encouragement to laudable induſtry, by a patronage which might teach them the true bleſſings of life, and that temperance, diligence, and economy, are in all ſtations equally neceſſary, and the only means of true happineſs.

The preſent little performance is written, as its title profeſſes, with a view of tracing the origin, progreſs, and preſent ſtate, of ſlavery, and of propoſing a gradual abolition of this traffic. The firſt part of the work we ſhall paſs over, becauſe, admitting that the negroes are the children of Canaan, againſt whom a curſe was pronounced by the Almighty, that ſlavery is coëval with ſociety, and the general conſequence of conqueſt, the author is himſelf ready to admit that it is not the buſineſs of men to make themſelves the executioners of divine vengeance, and that as knowledge and morality increaſe, all the inſtitutions of a barbarous age ſhould ceaſe.

On the very intereſting and important ſubject of a ſafe emancipation of the ſlaves, we are much pleaſed with the obſervations and plans propoſed, and ſincerely recommend the peruſal of the performance to all ſuch as are engaged in this benevolent undertaking, both in and out of parliament. An immediate emancipation our author dreads, as an evil not only to the planters, but to the blacks themſelves; nor does he ſeem to require an inſtant abolition of the trade. For ſuch as are already in a ſtate of ſlavery, he propoſes the eſtabliſhment of a *police* for their benefit, that a proſpect ſhould be open to them of ſome period to their ſervitude, according to their degree of induſtry, honeſty, and fidelity; that they ſhould all be taught ſo

much of the Engliſh language as to enable them to converſe with one another, with the whites, and to teach the freſh imported ſlaves enough to render their ſituation more tolerable by the advantage of mutual intercourſe. In order to improve ſtill farther this laſt advantage, he adviſes that ſuch ſlaves as have fulfilled the period of their ſervitude, ſhould be tranſported, if they wiſhed it, to their own country, that the prejudice entertained by the Africans againſt the merchants may be removed; that a degree of improvement and civiliſation may be begun in Africa, and even ſomething like the cultivation of a ſoil very fit to produce ſugars and other Weſt-India commodities. Theſe propoſals are at leaſt worthy the attention of the legiſlature, and thoſe diſintereſted individuals who have ſo generouſly undertaken the cauſe of the negroes. There is only one part of our author's plan we cannot immediately coincide with—to further the improvement of the negroes, without injury to their maſters, he propoſes a *Sunday's School*. It is well known that the ſpace from Saturday noon to Monday has hitherto been invariably left to the diſpoſal of the ſlave; part is uſually employed in cultivating a ſmall ſpot of earth, part in carrying his commodities to market, and the remainder in thoſe recreations which in Africa probably made the whole of his employment. Surely this ſpace is not too much for all theſe purpoſes; and the dull buſineſs of learning a language, how uſeful ſoever it might be in the end, would, we apprehend, be an unwelcome exchange.

ART. XIV. *Sylva Critica: ſive in Auctores ſacros profanoſque Commentarius Philologus: concinnavit Gilbertus Wakefield, A. B. et Coll. Jeſu apud Cantab. nuper Socius.* 8vo. 4s. boards. Merril, Cambridge; Deighton, London. 1789.

THAT the writings of the ancients have ſuffered much from the inaccuracy of copyiſts, there needs no other proof than the numerous variations which occur in different manuſcripts of one and the ſame work. To examine ſuch paſſages in them as appear to be ſuſpicious, to collate the various readings attentively with each other, and thence endeavour to aſcertain what was probably the original expreſſion; theſe objects have given riſe to the arduous office of commentators, who, during ſome ages ſubſequent to the revival of learning, and the invention of the art of printing, overſpread almoſt all Europe with their annotations. A great portion of knowledge, and indefatigable induſtry, are accompliſhments which we cannot refuſe thoſe ſcholiaſts in general to have poſſeſſed; but, if we except ſome men of diſtinguiſhed abilities, they were far from being equally endowed

endowed with other collateral and eſſential requiſites of criticiſm. Void of elegance of taſte, and acuteneſs of diſcernment, they ſeldom entered into the ſpirit, or comprehended the beauties, of the authors on whom they commented; and they often miſtook, for the ſenſe of the author, the conceits of their own imagination. Many, on this account, are the paſſages in ancient writers, concerning which a judicious reader will diſſent from, or heſitate at leaſt to adopt, the opinion of the ſcholiaſt. Of this claſs of independent critics appears to have been the author now before us. He ſeems to have devoted his attention chiefly to the examination of the ſcriptures; but partly for the better aſcertaining the ſenſe of thoſe ſacred oracles, by occaſionally collating them with parallel paſſages in other writings, and partly likewiſe for the ſake of variety, he has interſperſed his commentaries on the Old and New Teſtament with remarks on the ancient poets. His obſervations, in general, are judicious, and place him in a very favourable light, both as a claſſical ſcholar of extenſive erudition, and a man of an elegant and correct taſte. We ſhall ſelect a few examples of the emendations which he ſuggeſts.

Whatever may be the propriety of ſubſtituting *læſo* for *laſſo*, in the ſecond line following, we think the change is a real improvement in the laſt line of the quotation:

> ‘ *Purpureus veluti cùm flos ſucciſus aratro*
> *Langueſcit moriens*; LASSOve *papavera collo*
> *Demiſere caput, pluviâ cùm forte gravantur.*

Varietas lectionis eſt in hoc loco—*laſſo*—*laxo*—*lapſo*: quarum nulla quidèm videtur contemnenda, et temerè repudianda; nullam autèm genuinam judico. Dedit ſcilicèt limatiſſimus poeta, et *Græcarum* elegantiarum ſervantiſſimus,

> ——————LÆSOve *papavera collo.*

Pari venuſtate noſter vii. 808.

> *Illa vel intactæ ſegetis per ſumma volaret*
> *Gramina, nec teneras curſu* LÆSISSET *ariſtas.*

Et eadem reſtitutio mihi prorsùs neceſſaria videtur ad Æn. vi. 310. ne bis idem dicendi ignominiâ notetur *Maro*:

> *Quam multa in ſilvis autumni frigore primo*
> LÆSA *cadunt folia.*’

We ſhould likewiſe be inclined to adopt Mr. Wakefield’s alteration of *obtundem*, with a point of interrogation, after *aures*, for *obturem*, in the following paſſage of Horace:

'Multa fero, ut placem genus irritabile vatum,
Cùm scribo, et supplex populi suffragia capto.
Idem, finitis studiis et mente receptâ,
Obturem patulas impune legentibus aures.'

This reading might be supported by several examples from Latin authors; but we shall only mention the following from Cicero—'Longis epistolis aliquem obtundere.'

The next example we shall give is from 1 Timothy vi. 19.

'Αποθησαυριζοντας ἑαυτοις θεμελιου καλον εις το μελλου, ἱνα επιλαβωνται της αιωνιȣ ζωης.'

Mr. Wakefield thinks that to 'lay up a foundation' is such an expression as could never have been used by this apostle; and he proposes that, instead of θεμελιον καλον, we should read, θεμα λιαν καλον. In support of this emendation he adduces a passage from Tobit iv. 9, which he imagines St. Paul had in his eye. It is as follows;

'μη φοβȣ ποιειν ελεημοσυνην· ΘΕΜΑ γαρ ΑΓΑΘΟΝ ΘΗΣΑΥΡΙΖΕΙΣ σεαυτῳ εις ἡμεραν αναγκης.'

We cannot hesitate to admit that the insertion of επτερωμεναι, instead of εν τῳ σωματι, in the subsequent passage of Menander, would be far more poetical and animated:

'Οιμοι ταλας εγωγε· πȣ ποθ' ἁι φρενες
Ημων εκεινον ησαν εν τῳ σωματι
Τον χρονον.

We have confined ourselves to these few examples of the emendations proposed by this author, as, in other places, his remarks are, in general, supported by a variety of collateral authorities, the insertion of which would have too much extended the present article. Mr. Wakefield shews a boldness of conjecture, which sometimes, by its great deviation from the received reading of ancient authors, we cannot but hesitate to adopt. His suggestions, however, are at least always ingenious and plausible; and he discovers a scrupulous caution in every remark on the sacred writings. We are persuaded that a continuation of the work will afford pleasure to the lovers of classical learning, and those who are conversant in philology.

ART.

ART. XV. *A Journey through Sweden; containing a detailed Account of its Population, Agriculture, Commerce, and Finances; to which is added an abridged Hiſtory of the Kingdom, and of the different Forms of Government, from the Acceſſion of Guſtavus Vaſa in* 1523. *With ſome Particulars relating to the Hiſtory of Denmark, and to the Life of Count Struenzee. Written in French by a Dutch Officer, and tranſlated into Engliſh by William Radcliffe, A. B. of Oriel College, Oxford.* 8vo. 5s. boards. Kearſley. London, 1789.

TO thoſe who are deſirous of gaining a minute knowledge of the preſent ſtate of Sweden, this anonymous traveller has preſented a very uſeful volume. He views every thing with the diligent and acute eye of a philoſopher; and though his details may be ſometimes tedious, the knowledge which they convey will amply recompence the trouble of peruſing them. We ſhall endeavour to give our readers a brief abſtract of what is moſt worthy of notice in this intereſting work.

The author arrived at Stockholm by the way of Gottenburg, Falkioping, Marieſtadt, Orebro, and Arboga, which is not the neareſt road to the capital; but it was not his deſign, he tells us, to follow the ordinary route, ſince he intended to obſerve whatever was curious, either in the productions of nature, or in the performances of art; and to make the complete tour of a country which intereſted him both by the picturesque diſpoſition of its ſcenery, and by the activity, genius, and hoſpitality of its inhabitants.

Sweden, he informs us, conſiſts entirely of one continued rock of granite, covered in different places with a greater or leſs quantity of earth; and, though agriculture has for ſome years been greatly encouraged, is for the moſt part badly cultivated. The country is very thinly inhabited; and, in ſome diſtricts, he paſſed through deſerts of twenty or thirty leagues in extent, without ſeeing any other traces of population than a few poor huts, placed upon the mould which covers the rocks. To this dreary account there are, however, ſome exceptions; Sudermania, and all the ſouthern parts of Upland, are well cultivated. Scania is very beautiful, and the cultivation of Oſtrogothia deſerves high commendation. But though the general face of the country may be diſguſting to a traveller, our author obſerves that the labours of the mines, the management of the forges, and the manners of the people, are ſubjects for inveſtigation, which ſufficiently repay the trouble of a journey into Sweden. He ſaw among mines of iron the ſimplicity of the golden age; and though in ſome places ſcarcely any thing

appeared

appeared to the eye but rocks, whoſe bowels contain the materials of ſteel, he there found men with hearts uncontaminated by any of its qualities.

At Faklun in Dalecarlia he had the firſt opportunity of inveſtigating the mines. The deſcription of his deſcent into the copper mine, which is exceedingly curious, would be injured by an abridgment. We will therefore preſent it to our readers in his own words:

'For four hours which I ſpent in the bowels of Kopparberg, and during which, partly by the help of ladders, and partly by ſtairs, I deſcended from one gallery to another, my aſtoniſhment increaſed at every ſtep. Our deſcent was at firſt by a zigzag ſtaircaſe, formed in an excavation of perhaps two thouſand feet in circumference, and three hundred feet in depth; and thus far we were able to proceed by the light of the ſun. In a corner, at the bottom of this excavation, was a wooden hut of ſix or ſeven feet in height, at the door of which ſtood two figures, half naked, and as black as ink, each of whom held in his hand a faggot of lighted fir, and, thus equipped, might have paſſed for one Pluto's pages. Here alſo we found four entrances to the mine itſelf; the moſt convenient is that which opens into this hut; but they are each honoured with the name of ſome Swediſh prince or man of rank. Upon our appearance at the door of this, they brought for myſelf and ſervant two dreſſes, entirely black, made like thoſe of the Heiducs, and intended to ſecure our clothes in the narrow paſſages of the galleries. I had put on mine, when I perceived my man, terrified by the diſmal appearance of my garb, and ſtill more by the prayers which our guides were offering up for our preſervation and deliverance from the mine, refuſing either to put on his ſcaramouch dreſs, or to make any attempt towards deſcending farther. Theſe fellows, during our deſcent of the firſt ſtaircaſe, had been entertaining us with ſtories of falling fragments of rock, broken ladders, and ſudden eruptions of water or peſtilential vapours; we had alſo ſeen prayers offered up by every workman upon his approach to the mine; and theſe circumſtances had made ſuch an impreſſion upon my young Frieze, that nothing leſs than the moſt profuſe reproaches of his cowardice could induce him to follow me.

'At length, by paſſing partly through alleys ſupported by timberwork, and partly under vaults ſelf-ſupported, I arrived at thoſe vaſt halls, whoſe tops and extremities the feeble light of our faggots could not reach. In ſome of theſe halls there are forges, at which they manufacture and repair the tools uſed in the mine; and the heat in them is ſo exceſſive, that the workmen are all entirely as naked as nature produced them. Others ſerve for magazines, either of gunpowder, for the purpoſe of exploſion, or of cords and other neceſſary utenſils; and between theſe the communication is by the alleys already mentioned. There are ſome of theſe halls in all the galleries, and between each gallery are either ſteps or ladders. Beſides theſe, there are openings hollowed perpendicularly from the outer ſurface

to

to the loweſt gallery, which ſerve for the admiſſion of air, and through which heavy commodities are lowered in barrels, by means of pullies kept continually moving during the whole time of work. Horſes are ſtationed at the top of the mountain for the purpoſe of working theſe pullies, and the barrels are held by iron chains, which are uſed inſtead of common ropes, on account of the deſtructive quality of the vitriolic and coppery vapours ariſing from the bottom of the mine; even the chains do not laſt long in theſe vapours, and they therefore often uſe ropes made of hog's briſtles or cow's hair. On this account, and in order to prevent other accidents, the workmen are prohibited from aſcending or deſcending by the barrels, and are obliged to uſe the more tedious route of the ladders. Theſe openings alſo, with the ſubterraneous fires and other phyſical cauſes, produce in the loweſt galleries ſuch currents of air, as in ſome places can be ſaid only to reſemble tempeſts; but, without this method of purification, the air would be ſo unfit for breathing, that no perſon could exiſt in it for a quarter of an hour. The alleys which I have mentioned are ſometimes of the height of five or ſix feet, and ſometimes ſo low that it is neceſſary to creep along them; in theſe the currents of air are the moſt violent and dangerous; for it often happens that when a profuſe perſpiration has been brought on by the heat of the forges, you are met by one of theſe currents, which are always as cold as ice, and which even freeze the ſweat upon your body.

'The vaults, which are not ſupported by timber, preſent ſometimes very remarkable appearances; priſms of different figures being formed by the cryſtalliſation of the vitriol which trickles down them. Imagine a thouſand pointed projections, like thoſe in ſugar candy, but of the length of eight, ten, twelve, or twenty-feet, and of the moſt beautiful green colour, hanging from the top of theſe vaults, and reflecting the light from their various-formed ſides over the ore with which the partitions are filled.

'In a gallery ſeven hundred feet under the ſurface of the earth, they diſſolve this vitriol, and force it from the mine by a curious hydraulic contrivance. The water of a conſiderable ſpring is put in motion by a machine worked by horſes; this water diſſolves the vitriol, and afterwards precipitates it through a trough containing ſome old iron into another. The whole operation, and the labour by which it is performed, are ſomething ſingular. Four-and-twenty horſes, which as well as the men relieve each other every ſix hours, keep the machine at work both by day and night. The horſes are kept in ſtables in this gallery, with mangers hollowed in the rock; and when they have once entered the mine, are never ſuffered to leave it, but to be exhibited once a year at a ſort of review. They are then raiſed and lowered by pullies and bandages, through the openings in which there are ladders, in the ſame manner as with us horſes are hoiſted on board ſhips.

'My curioſity led me as far as the laſt gallery, eleven hundred feet under ground, and in which the copper is chiefly worked. Here, notwithſtanding the exceſſive cold, I again ſaw labourers entirely naked; and though a ſpectator, well clothed and covered, may

feel

may feel himſelf almoſt frozen, yet, ſuch is the immenſe exertion uſed in hewing the rock, and in ſeparating thoſe parts where the ore is found, that theſe men, in pure nakedneſs, were entirely covered with ſweat. The darkneſs of theſe ſubterraneous regions, the fires perceived at different diſtances, the ſort of gloomy light which proceeded from them, the naked labourers, black as the ore at which they worked, and ſurrounded by ſparks produced by their hammers; the noiſe of all this labour, and of the hydraulic engines in motion, with the horrible figures which from time to time ruſhed paſt me with torches in their hands, made me doubt a little whether I had not really deſcended rather too near to Tartarus. Yet this ſcene is not to be compared with that which preſented itſelf to me when, upon deſcending to the very bottom of the mine, I entered a ſort of large hall, the vaults of which were ſupported by pillars cut in the rock, and ſurrounded with ſeats of the ſame material. Here my two conductors, inquiring if I would not ſit down and liſten to a ſmall piece of muſic, the effect of which would ſurpriſe me: 'Of what ſort is this muſic?' ſaid I. 'It is the ſtrange noiſe,' anſwered they, 'which the rocks make when, in order to leſſen the trouble of breaking them with an axe, they are blown in pieces by gunpowder.'

'My fondneſs for the wonderful, and my reliance upon the prudence of my guides, made me comply, upon the condition of their remaining with me. They gave me their words for this, which they ſaid they might the more eaſily keep, as this was almoſt the only hall in which there was no danger. One of them then left me to give his orders, and returned to our ſeat in a minute afterwards, where we remained wearied by expectation, and ſhivering with cold, for a quarter of an hour. I had ſcarcely expreſſed my impatience, when a diſcharge ſtruck my ears with ſuch force as I had never before experienced; this was ſucceeded by a ſudden light, which illumined the whole of this ſubterraneous territory, but in an inſtant vaniſhed, and left us in total darkneſs, the concuſſion of the air having extinguiſhed our faggots. This darkneſs was interrupted only by the flaſhes from ſucceeding diſcharges, of which the light laſted only for a moment, but the ſound was long and terribly reverberated in echoes. The vaults cracked, the earth ſhook, and the benches on which we ſat trembled. I was then eleven hundred and thirty-ſix feet beneath the ſurface of the earth; and when I caught the ſcent of the ſmoke, liſtened to the noiſe of burſting rocks, and ſurveyed my guides, my domeſtics, and myſelf, you will perhaps think me excuſable if I own that the little hair which nature has left me roſe upward with fear. This harmonious muſic continued for about half an hour, and left us at once to an entire ſilence, which, with the darkneſs of the place, and the ſort of ſuffocation produced by the ſmoke, ſerved only to prolong my terror. I found, however, that this operation was repeated every day at noon, during the repaſt of the workmen, to whom the hall in which I was ſeated, and ſome niches cut in the rock, ſerved as a ſhelter from the violence of the exploſions.

'Theſe exploſions are neceſſary here, becauſe the rock is very hard, and the miners could not otherwiſe proceed above a few toiſes in a year. One of our guides having, by groping his way, obtained a light,

a light, we returned by a different paſſage, not more than half the length of that by which we entered. I was detained, however, to obſerve a chamber hollowed in the rock, containing a ſquare table in the middle, ſurrounded by cuſhioned benches; four chandeliers illuminated with wax hung from the top of the vault, and the rock was wainſcotted to the height of five feet. In this chamber the council of the mines meets twice a year; and there is a kitchen and cellar hewn in the rock, for the accommodation of the company who dine in it upon this occaſion.'

A ſmall quantity of gold and ſilver has occaſionally been found in the mines near Fahlun. But the labour of extracting them gives to theſe precious metals a negative value. Our author ſaw a ducat of gold, which had been produced at the expence of four times its real worth. There is, however, a ſilver mine at Sahla of conſiderable value, but relatively ſmall, when compared with that of iron at Dannemora, which may be called the Peru of Sweden, ſince its produce is the chief ſupport of the trade in that country.

Though a journey through Sweden muſt be uncomfortable from the miſerable ſtate of the inns, which in ſummer, for want of cleanlineſs, abound with every kind of vermin; yet the excellence of the public roads, and the order eſtabliſhed for the conſtant ſupply of horſes, render travelling very expeditious. In all the high, and even in the croſs-roads, we are told, poſt-maſters are appointed, who are alſo a kind of inn-keepers, having under their direction a certain number of peaſants. In their turn, and in proportion to the value of their farms, theſe peaſants are obliged to provide one or two ſervants, with one, two, three, four, or more horſes, which remain in waiting for twenty-four hours, and are then ſucceeded by others. If any traveller arrives, they are paid for their time and trouble; if not, they loſe both. Theſe ſervices are too rigorous, and too injurious to agriculture, not to be ſometimes evaded; and we find that during harveſt they are not very ſtrictly exacted.

After inveſtigating the internal commerce, the levied forces and national troops, and various other matters worthy of notice, the author gives an intereſting deſcription of Stockholm. The taſte of Guſtavus III. improved by his travels into France and Italy, has imported into that city the arts and pleaſures of more genial climates. He has eſtabliſhed an opera, a *comedie Françoiſe*, and a national theatre. Reſpecting the laſt, a little anecdote is related, which proves that the higheſt power and rank are obliged ſometimes to ſubmit to the impertinent caprice of favourite talents. 'The firſt actreſs in the national theatre,' ſays our author, 'is a Daniſh woman, called Walter, the daughter of a 'common ſailor, and educated at Copenhagen by a private 'perſon.

'perſon. She is handſome, and has many admirers, whom ſhe 'delights herſelf with tormenting by a variety of caprices. A 'very ſingular inſtance of her inſolence is told here. Thinking 'herſelf not ſufficiently paid for her peformances, ſhe petitioned 'for an increaſe of ſalary, and one day ſpoke to the king about 'it with more ſpirit than uſual. His majeſty bid her be con-'tent with the preſent payments, and told her very poſitively 'they ſhould never be increaſed.—'Very well; then I demand 'my diſmiſſion.'—'You ſhall neither be diſmiſſed nor better 'paid.'—'O! then I ſhall make my eſcape, fly from the coun-'try, and never ſet my foot in it again.'—'You may try, but 'will probably not find it very eaſy to eſcape from the kingdom, 'if I forbid it.'—A little while after, notwithſtanding the watch 'kept upon her, ſhe did eſcape, and at the laſt port wrote in 'the *day-book*, 'Sire, it is much eaſier to eſcape from your king-'dom than you ſuppoſe.' She deſired this book might be ſhewn 'to the king; and as a curioſity they ſent it. She then went 'to Denmark, and ſettled herſelf at Copenhagen, where ſhe 'was known and received with great applauſe, when the king 'made her propoſals to return. At firſt ſhe treated them with 'diſdain; but having at length obtained the ſum demanded, ſhe 'returned to Stockholm, to enjoy the triumph and congratula-'tions that awaited her.'

Our author next gives an account of the Academy of Sciences, the Repoſitory of Machines, the Obſervatory, the Academy of Painting and Sculpture, which ſhews that the Swedes are advancing very rapidly in improvement.

Their humanity is not inferior to their taſte and knowledge. The charitable inſtitutions eſtabliſhed at Stockholm do them the higheſt honour. They have two houſes for the reception of orphans, a foundling hoſpital, and one for gratuitous inoculation. There are alſo two lying-in hoſpitals. In theſe a certain number of women are received during their illneſs; and care is taken of thoſe children whoſe mothers are unable to nurſe them. Beſides theſe there is a college of medicine, whoſe general utility and benevolent deſign deſerve to be peculiarly noticed. Forty phyſicians, deputed by this college, and paid by the ſtate, are ſent into the different provinces to give attendance to the poor gratis.

Though our own country has many houſes of benevolence, whoſe utility is equal to their ſplendour, yet there is one charitable foundation in which we are very much inferior to other nations. Our hoſpital for foundlings is on a very limited ſcale, and little calculated to prevent thoſe evils againſt which ſuch an inſtitution ſhould provide. The murder of infants, and the ſelf-deſtruction of an unhappy female illegally pregnant, are objects

worthy of the notice of every well-regulated government. If an hoſpital, ſimilar to thoſe at Paris and Stockholm, were ſupported by the parliament of England, to which the perſon who ſhould bring an infant, inſtead of being rigorouſly queſtioned, ſhould receive a reward; the horrors of infanticide would no longer wound humanity: population, the ſource of wealth and power, would be rapidly increaſed; and the expence which ſuch an inſtitution would coſt government, would by its political effects be moſt amply repaid.

After a very ſatisfactory deſcription of Stockholm, the author endeavours to make his readers acquainted with Upſal, the capital of Upland, and the ſeat of a celebrated univerſity. Among other curious objects he paid particular attention to the cathedral, which he repreſents as a noble building, and as containing the tombs of ſeveral Swediſh monarchs. More anxious, perhaps, to pay a tribute of reſpect to the remains of literary eminence than to thoſe of regal dignity, our author inquired earneſtly for the tomb of Linnæus. His conductor told him that no monument had been erected to that great man's memory, and that he was ignorant in what part of the cathedral he had been buried. At length, however; after a diligent ſearch, upon a ſmall ſtone, half hid by a bench, he diſcovered, '*Hic jacet Linnæus Profeſſor.*' Happily obſerves this ſenſible writer, his fame is already diffuſed by his works, and neither monument or epitaph is neceſſary to prolong it. This conſideration is however no excuſe for a country which could treat the memory of its brighteſt ornament with ſuch palpable neglect.

From Sweden our author paſſes to Denmark, and makes a compariſon between theſe countries and their inhabitants. In Denmark, he ſays, there are no rivers, and the whole country conſiſts of riſing hills, and open vallies, with a rich but ſtony ſoil, and ſome ſmall lakes. In Sweden, on the contrary, the lakes and rivers are very large, and the eye perceives only mountains, rocks, vallies, and foreſts. The Swedes are lively, laborious, and ſuſceptible of ſudden attachments. The Danes, with an inclination to repoſe, and a ſerious phlegmatic diſpoſition, are ſlower in forming friendſhips, but very conſtant in preſerving them. The women of both countries are handſome, amiable, and well-educated, having delicate, and, for the moſt part, fair complexions, blue eyes, and fine hair. The Swediſh women are well made, have an animated air, expreſſive countenance, and light figures; thoſe of Denmark are duller, and inclined to become corpulent. The former ſeem more ſuſceptible of the deſires, the latter of the tenderneſs, of love.

Beſides a deſcription of what fell under his immediate obſervation, our author gives an abridgment of the hiſtory of Sweden from

from the acceſſion of Guſtavus Vaſa in 1523. To this is added an account of the life of the unfortunate Count Struenzee. From both theſe the reader may derive entertainment and inſtruction; indeed, we venture to recommend the whole as a very uſeful work.

With reſpect to the tranſlation, if we except a few inaccuracies and galliciſms, it is clearly, if not elegantly, written. If Mr. Radcliffe ſhould occupy himſelf with any future work in the French language, we would recommend to him to avoid ſuch expreſſions as theſe: under his *orders*, for, under his *command*—her bones *lay*, for *lie*—*aſſiſted* at the public exerciſes, inſtead of *attended*. *Voiture* and *façade* are alſo improperly uſed as Engliſh words.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. XVI. *Voyage de jeune Anacharſis en Grèce, dans le Milieu du Quatrième Siècle avant l'ère Vulgaire.* 8vo. 7 vols.—There is alſo a Quarto Edition.

ART. XVI. *Travels of a young Anacharſis into Greece, &c.* 8vo. 7 vols.

FOR this captivating work the world is indebted to the genius and unwearied labours of the Abbé Barthelemy, with whoſe name the friends of learning have long been acquainted. It has been his employment the greater part of his life; for two-and-thirty years he has been exerting his powers, and beſtowing uniform diligence to render it as complete a ſyſtem of Grecian learning as the nature of the plan he adopted would allow; that he has ſucceeded in his undertaking, the univerſal ſuffrages of his own nation diſplay a noble and gratifying teſtimony. No ſooner was the book publicly announced, than the whole of the firſt edition was ſold off, and it was running rapidly through a ſecond edition before the year was elapſed in which it firſt made its appearance.

The learned Abbé, ſenſible of the power of fiction, by which he might as it were enchant and tranſport his reader from place to place, has thrown the work into the form of travels. However, the tour alone is ideal; all the ſubjects it comprehends are the real facts of hiſtory; and it is not poſſible to confound them, even if the author had not beſtowed ſuch minute attention to authorities which he has referred to.

In order to give life to learning, and ſet every thing in motion, he begins by making us acquainted with a child of his own

own brain, with whom he engages us to travel; his tour the nobleſt and moſt delightful ever made upon the face of the earth. He gives him the name of the famous Anacharſis, the Scythian philoſopher, informing us that he is his countryman and deſcendant. Young Anacharſis had from his earlieſt years been inſpired with eſteem for the Grecians, who had revered the virtues of his anceſtor, and was in a great degree alienated from Scythia, whoſe inhabitants, to a proverb, unaccuſtomed to ſuperior merit, had paid no attention to that of their own philoſopher, the only man among them who had ever deſerved diſtinction.

Theſe feelings were more and more excited by the converſation of a Grecian ſlave, whom he tells us he had purchaſed; for it is from the young Anacharſis himſelf that we have the detail of every thing; the author is no where ſeen in his own perſon, except in a ſhort advertiſement prefixed to the firſt volume, and in his notes and references to authorities. The ſlave whom the young Scythian had purchaſed was related to one of the principal families in Thebes; being a man of merit, he ſoon gained the affection of his maſter, a youth not eighteen, thirſting for knowledge, and in love with virtue. The deſcriptions that would naturally be detailed by the Grecian, could not fail to excite a deſire of viſiting thoſe delightful regions he had ever held in the higheſt eſtimation. 'The more I knew him,' ſays Anacharſis, 'the more I was ſenſible of the ſuperiority which 'enlightened nations poſſeſs over thoſe that are not enlightened. 'Timagenes (the name of the Theban) at once delighted and 'humbled me by the charms of his converſation, and by the 'aſcendency of his underſtanding. The hiſtory of the Gre-'cians, their manners, their governments, their arts and ſciences, 'their feſtivals, their public amuſements, were the inexhauſti-'ble ſubject of our converſation. I aſked him a thouſand queſ-'tions; I liſtened to him with rapture; I was but juſt entered 'into my eighteenth year; my imagination added the livelieſt 'colours to the ſublimity of his pictures. I had ſeen nothing 'hitherto but tents, flocks, and deſerts. No longer able to en-'dure the wandering life I had led, or the profound ignorance 'in which I had lived, I reſolved to forſake a climate where na-'ture had ſcarcely provided for the wants of man, and a people 'that appeared to me to have no virtues, unleſs it be a virtue 'to be ignorant of ſome vices.'

Glowing with theſe ſentiments, and eager to put into execution the project he had formed, he begins by giving us an amiable proof of the nobleneſs of his heart. Timagenes had delighted and inſtructed him, and he had bowed to the ſuperior underſtanding of his ſlave; for ſuch a man ſlavery was an

unworthy portion; the generous Anacharsis restores him to freedom, and requests alone the enjoyment of his friendship. They set out together in the latter end of the first year of the 104th olympiad, about 363 years before the birth of our Saviour.

[*To be continued.*]

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

For FEBRUARY 1790.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. 17. *Letters chiefly from India; containing an Account of the Military Transactions on the Coast of Malabar, during the late War; together with a short Description of the Religion, Manners, and Customs, of the Inhabitants of Indostan. By John Le Couteur, Esq. Captain in his Majesty's* 100*th Regiment of Foot. Translated from the French.* 8vo. 6s. boards. Murray. London, 1790.

THE performance before us is the work of a lively and agreeable writer, who appears to have given an impartial and faithful narrative of the principal occurrences of the last war in India.

He was himself an actor in most of the scenes he has described; and, if we may judge from the propriety of his remarks on the conduct of the different commanders by sea and land, he was not unqualified to have produced something more than an historical epitome.

Beside the narrative of military and political transactions, the author has enriched his little work with entertaining accounts of the natural curiosities, religious rites, and other peculiarities of the different countries he had the opportunity of seeing, during his absence from home on his military duty; these are, we believe, the result of his own observation, and though not very full, are sufficient to give a good general idea of those subjects, at the same time that it will afford considerable amusement to the reader.

The letters, however, are not entirely free from fault; there are luxuriancies to prune, and deficiencies to supply; but our want of room obliges us to postpone the further examination of the work till next month.

ART. 18. *A Fifteen Days Tour to Paris; containing several interesting Circumstances, particularly the Origin and Progress of the present Revolution, and confused Situation of that Country; including the Mode now adopted of Paying Bills at the Paris Bank, &c.* 8vo. 2s. Kearsley. London, 1789.

The excursion made by this traveller was short, but he has doubtless employed it to the best advantage. He went by Dover and Calais, and returned by Dieppe and Brighthelmstone. Of all the most noted places through which he passed in this route, he gives a general description; but the greater part of his observations relates to the French capital; where having seen the king, the queen, and a few other eminent personages, he delivers a transient account of them. The description of the Bastille, which is annexed, appears to be drawn with fidelity.

ART.

ART. 19. *The Harp; a Legendary Tale, in Two Parts.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Johnson. London, 1789.

This performance would be entitled to praise were it the first production of either a boy or girl. If it comes from the hands of a veteran, we can only wish he had been better employed; to pray for the amendment of a poet at a mature age, would both be idle and ineffectual.

ART. 20. *The Blunders of Loyalty, and other Miscellaneous Poems; being a Selection of certain ancient Poems, partly on Subjects of local History. Together with the original Notes and Illustrations. The Poems modernised by Ferdinand Fungus, Gent.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Murray. London, 1789.

We are of opinion that the talents of Mr. Fungus for the species of wit at which he aims stand in no need of those uncouth and obscure artifices of which he avails himself.

There is much keen satire in these verses. But the object of ridicule being local, remote, and not general, the performance we apprehend cannot be in general demand. The author should select a subject for exercising his talents upon not liable to this objection.

ART. 21. *The Tempest; or, The Enchanted Island. Written by Shakespeare. With Additions from Dryden, as compiled by J. P. Kemble, and first acted at the Theatre-Royal, Drury-Lane, Oct.* 13, 1789. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. London, 1789.

We do not much admire this mode of jumbling our best authors into one heterogeneous mass. The public taste ought to be formed and led by good writers; but Mr. Kemble sets the example of accommodating them to the fashion of the times. However such *management* may answer the purposes of the treasury in Old Drury, we should be sorry to see it adopted by the editors of our dramatic poets. Let not their beauties be thus mangled and deformed to gratify the fastidious taste, the interest, or the vanity, of any, who, having no tenderness for their fame, wantonly sacrifice it to pecuniary considerations.

ART. 22. *A Letter to the Rev. Dr. Parr; occasioned by his Republication of Tracts by Warburton and a Warburtonian.* 8vo. 1s. Robson and Clarke. London, 1789.

The obvious and avowed purpose of this Letter is to expose what the writer deems the *real* motives of the republication referred to in the title, and pretty generally ascribed to the Rev. Dr. Parr. The only ostensible reasons stated by the editor for a new edition of the tracts mentioned, are, that those of a Warburtonian are scarce, and abandoned of their author; that some compensation to the Doctors Jortin and Leland was necessary; and that some juvenile pieces of the late celebrated author of the *Divine Legation* merited preservation. These the Letter writer alleges are mere pretensions, and roundly asserts that the learned editor had no higher motive for engaging in the present undertaking than a strong propensity to abuse

the Bishop of Worcester. Presuming the offended state of the Doctor's mind to be satisfactorily established, a variety of ingenious conjectures are hazarded to account, in some degree, for the fact. The Letter is dictated with much severity, retaliates on the Doctor his own charges, with some address, and is sometimes very successful in raising a laugh. The author can assume a tone, however, not destitute of dignity when he chuses to be serious. The following is an extract of this sort. We pretend not to give any opinion of its justice or aptitude in the present dispute, but it is written in a manner which discovers abilities. 'The most acceptable service, Sir, which you could possibly have had it in your power to perform, for the memory of those respectable characters whose cause you affect to take up, was to have suffered the Tracts to have remained in that state of oblivion in which you found them. For it seems hardly consistent with the regard you express to select these from among your scarce and forgotten Tracts, and an act little short of piracy, to tear open the wounds afresh which the more friendly memory of the public had so kindly healed.

'There can be no doubt, Sir, but all the learned disputants concerned in this controversy give a common and a generous consent to the quiescence of the subject. In the strength and vigour of intellect, men of learning and ability seize the opportunities that offer for displaying them; and, in the cause of what they deem the truth, they are anxious, and sometimes even angry, in the struggle. The hand of time, however, softens and quiets the disposition for combat, and even for victory. The fermentations of dispute, like the grosser particles in the composition, sink gradually to rest, under the mild and clearer influence of religion and philosophy. That this, Sir, was the desirable issue of the present controversy, and that all the distinguished characters concerned in it, before they were separated by the great determiner of all questions, regarded each other with mutual respect, as scholars, as men, and as Christians, there cannot be the least doubt.

'Little thanks, therefore, are due to him, who, to gratify his own spleen and malignity, plunges it into the regions of oblivion, and, with a ruffian violence, drags forth a reposing spirit of contention into new agitation and tumult.'

In a subsequent part of the Letter the merits and views of the editor are thus boldly appreciated:

'When the reader has gone through the whole of your publication (impressed as he most probably is with previous respect and veneration for the eminent prelate to whom the Tracts are dedicated), he is in some anxiety to account for that profusion of abuse which he finds in your dedication and preface; as, in progress, he has discovered no just provocation for it. He perceives the scarcity of the tracts to be none, the supposed *desertion* of the author could be none; for what is it to Dr. P. or to any one else, whether the author chuses to acknowledge them or not? The cause could not be the *defence of Jortin and Leland*; for the abuse of the *Letter Writer* is no *defence* of them; and besides, he is informed that the *Letter Writer* is '*demolished*,' and the *public had forgotten the letters*. At last, however, upon casting

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ing back he smells the rat, where he lies lurking in a sentence or two at page 156, and in the note at page 109. I leave it to the reader's discernment to take the vermin by this direction.'

We add, without taking any side in the controversy, that Dr. Parr has roused an able antagonist; and the Bishop found an apt and well informed apologist.

ART. 23. *Alfred's Appeal. Containing his Address to the Court of King's Bench on the Subject of the Marriage of Mary Anne Fitzherbert, and her Intrigue with Count Bellois.* 8vo. 2s. London.

Here is no contemptible share of genius, associated, however, with much blameable indiscretion. *Oppression*, as the proverb has it, *makes a wise man mad*, and mad men often speak truth. But what shall we say of the counsel and his client; the jury who tried the cause, and the court in which it was tried, if the representation which this pamphlet gives be a fair one. We respect the ardour and the abilities which Alfred displays in this spirited appeal. It exhibits at the same time such fermentation of mind and intemperance of thought, such wildness and bitterness of expression, added to extravagance, which even the sufferings of the author will hardly justify.

It happens in this, as it does in many other cases, Alfred expects every allowance to be made for what he *feels*, but is rather sparing of the same indulgence to the *feelings* of those who managed the prosecution. He must know that the arrogance or insolence of office is proverbial, and he was wanting to himself in discovering any surprise from contumelious treatment. To expect the polished civilities of a drawing-room in a court of justice, under a prosecution for a libel, and after setting, in his own conduct, an example of gross indelicacy to individuals of the highest rank in life, to say the least of it betrays extreme weakness, and but a superficial knowledge of the world and human nature. The counsel's *crimination*, with all the colourings of a fervid elocution, was professional; his *recrimination*, full of asperity and invective as it was and highly inflammatory as he meant it should be, was also natural. But if the counsel, in his treatment of Alfred, wanted the complaisance of a gentleman, the replication of Alfred had neither the patience nor the composure of a christian. The counsel, feeling for his client, entered on the study of his brief under the impression that the defendant had forfeited all claim to the attentions of a gentleman, by stooping to be the author and publisher of deliberate slander. The counsel had it not in his option to act from any other sentiment, whether that sentiment was well or ill founded. There is no dignity without moderation, nor any manliness in the absence of decency. Had Alfred possessed the least degree of philosophy or firmness of mind, these are circumstances of which he must have been aware, and even prepared to meet them with fortitude and temper.

Alfred is also highly offended with the counsel for not giving full credit to the affidavit made by Alfred that he was not the author of *Nemesis*. Here again, without such a statement of facts as we have not

not yet seen the reasoning of, Alfred seems to us altogether premature. Surely some attention is due to the force of strong internal evidence. Where the same train of thinking, the same warmth of fancy, the same arrangement and modification in the very turn of expression, strike the most careless reader, connected with all the circumstances of the case, there is, at least, some room to doubt.

These reflections have occurred to us on reading this *appeal*, and we state them honestly, without wishing to colour or mislead either on the one side or the other. Apart from such temerity and termagency of mind as must in general be offensive, Alfred's talents are above mediocrity. Otherwise directed and employed, he might become a very useful member of society, and we shall be happy in paying him our tribute of praise whenever we find him laudably engaged.

ART. 24. *The Partisan in War; or, The Use of a Corps of Light Troops to an Army. By Lieut. Col. A. Emmerick.* Small 8vo. 4s. boards. Debrett. 1789.

The author of this treatise appears to be particularly well acquainted with the duty of a partisan, or the commander of a body of light troops. After mentioning the general qualifications of such an officer, he treats of the men and clothing, &c. necessary for a light corps; with the particular duties of the partisan. He next delivers the rules to be observed in marching by day and by night; with the precautions to which the partisan should always attend. The behaviour towards spies is directed with good sense and knowledge of human nature. The author then considers expeditions with cavalry; giving rules to be observed on service, and describing the mode of attack to interrupt couriers, &c. His attention is afterwards employed on expeditions with infantry; and he concludes with observations on conducting surprises by night. The treatise is written with great perspicuity; and, what must not a little increase its usefulness to military gentlemen, the colonel frequently illustrates his observations by examples drawn from his own experience.

ART. 25. *A Letter to J. Horne Tooke, Esq. occasioned by his Two Pair of Portraits, and other late Publications.* 8vo. 2s. Stalker. London, 1789.

This author urges Mr. Tooke to an enlargement of his Two Pair of Portraits, which, for the gratification of the public, he wishes to be extended to a greater length. He likewise vindicates the consistency of that gentleman through the whole of his political conduct; affirming that he has uniformly shown himself a friend to public liberty. Besides this, which forms the principal object of the pamphlet, the author takes a view of the shop-tax, the Westminster election, the deliberations of the parliament on the regency, with other political topics of the times.

ART. 26. *Tables of Exchange to and from France, from 25d to 28$\frac{15}{16}$, the French crown. By Andrew Thomas, Clerk to Sir Robert Herries*

ries and Co. Royal 8vo. 7s. 6d. boards. Murray. London, 1789.

The utility of theſe tables is obvious; and the author's advertiſement is the beſt account we can give of them.

'The extraordinary fall in the exchange between this country and France within theſe few years, has rendered all the tables hitherto publiſhed of no uſe, none of them going lower than 29d, except Mr. Webb's, which though very ingenious, yet being calculated in a peculiar manner, are liable to error, if great care is not taken in the application: even his only go down to 28d; whereas it is well known that the courſe has been much below that, and is ſtill on the decline.

'The public have therefore been for a conſiderable time paſt in want of ſuch a ſet as thoſe now propoſed; and the author, to obviate that inconvenience which he has frequently experienced, was firſt induced to calculate a few tables for his own uſe: the exchange continuing to get lower, he has been keeping pace with that declenſion; and ſome of his friends thinking that buſineſs would be expedited by the work, is the chief motive for his now bringing them forward. He has only to add further, that theſe calculations having taken up much of his time to render them accurate, they may be relied upon for their exactneſs.'

ART. 27. *Man-Midwifery Analiſed; or, The Tendency of that indecent and unneceſſary Practice detected and expoſed. Addreſſed to John Ford, late Surgeon and Man-Midwife at Briſtol, but now a Practitioner in that way in London.* Small 8vo. 3s. ſewed. Fores. London, 1790.

The author of this pamphlet inveighs, with great vehemence, againſt the employing of men in any obſtetrical capacity; inſiſting that ſuch a practice is not only unneceſſary, but utterly repugnant to female modeſty, and ſubverſive of virtue. Whatever reaſon there may be for employing male accoucheurs, in preference to midwives, in difficult labours, it is certain that no apology can be pleaded for the indecent familiarities which this author repreſents men-midwives as uſing with married women, in an early ſtage of pregnancy; eſpecially as midwives cannot but be ſufficiently qualified to ſuperſede male practitioners on ſuch occaſions.

ART. 28. *An Account of the Nature, Properties, and Medicinal Uſes of the Mineral Water at Nottington, near Weymouth, Dorſet. By John Crane, Phyſician, at Dorcheſter. With a View of the Well in its preſent State.* 12mo. 1s. Lockett, Dorcheſter. Newbery, London, 1790.

The mineral water at Nottington has long ſince been analyſed, and is known to poſſeſs very efficacious medicinal properties; but, through a blameable inattention, which has left the ſpring expoſed to various abuſes, it has loſt much of its merited celebrity. We find, however, that the gentlemen in the neighbourhood have at laſt come to the reſolution of effectually removing thoſe inconveniences; and

there is therefore little doubt that the Nottington water will soon retrieve and extend its reputation. It is chiefly impregnated, as the present author obſerves, with ſulphur, and the native alcaline ſalt or nitron. In cachectic habits, and all diſorders proceeding from a viſcidity of the fluids, the uſe of it proves highly advantageous.

ART. 29. *An Addreſs to the Electors of Great Britain and Ireland on the approaching General Election: Containing plain Conſtitutional Truths and ſeaſonable Obſervations. Reſpectfully offered to their ſerious Conſideration by an Independent Freeholder.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Walter, London, 1790.

The author of this addreſs is a zealous advocate for the reform of parliamentary repreſentation, the revival of which ſcheme he earneſtly recommends to the conſtituents at the next general election. His obſervations on this ſubject have been often ſuggeſted, and his exhortations, relative to the choice of members, no leſs frequently inculcated. How far they will influence the general conduct of electors, it is not difficult to foreſee: but whatever be the reſult, the author may conſole himſelf in the conſciouſneſs of his own good intentions.

ART. 30. *Secret Influence; or, Bute and Pitt's Adminiſtrations virtually the ſame, with a Diſtinct and Comprehenſive View of His Royal Highneſs the Prince of Wales, as Prince and Patriot.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Kerby. London, 1790.

This author affects a profound knowledge of the politics of the times, but we cannot ſubſcribe to his perſpicacity. He rambles through incidents, and ſuſpicions, and characters, without any coherence, and apparently with no other guide than the moſt palpable prejudices. It would be unjuſt to deny him the zeal of a violent partiſan; but equally unjuſt to admit his intemperance as a proof either of his judgment or integrity. He is, in fact, ſuch a writer as is likely to diſcredit any party, much leſs by his cenſure, than his praiſe.

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS

For FEBRUARY, 1790.

THE REVOLUTION IN FRANCE,

FAR from being the work of blood, does honour to the humanity of the French nation, and the cloſe of the eighteenth century. Of this humanity, of humanity tinctured with the moſt delicate ſenſibility, we have, in the courſe of this month, had a very ſtriking and a very pleaſing inſtance, in that gentle diſſolution, that euthanaſia by which the National Aſſembly have put a period, in France, to the exiſtence of monaſtic orders in religion,

religion. The change introduced into human affairs, in the lapſe of a ſhort time, is painted in ſtrong colours, when we compare the tenderneſs ſhewn to the monks and nuns by the French legiſlature of theſe times, with the violence of KNOX and other reformers in the ſixteenth century. It is natural for the intereſts of humanity to wiſh well to the progreſs, and to pray for the final eſtabliſhment of a civil conſtitution conceived in ſentiments the moſt mild and rational.—It is matter of ſatisfaction and joy to the friends of freedom and human nature, that the French king has appeared perſonally in the National Aſſembly, ratified their acts, and, together with the queen, cordially and emphatically declared his reſolution to ſupport, and teach his ſons, the ſons of France, to ſupport and cheriſh the new conſtitution.—The example of France, as has been often obſerved, ſpreads a genial influence on the neighbouring nations. In the

AUSTRIAN, OR RATHER THE CATHOLIC NETHERLANDS,

It has divided, and more than divided, the Belgic nation with the blind obſtinacy of antient prejudice. The progreſſive light of knowledge, the near vicinity of ſo kindred and mighty a nation as France, flouriſhing in all the vigour of matured experience combined with manly youth, will expoſe the vile arts of prieſtcraft and tyranny to every mind. In vain ſhall a VAN EUPEN draw the cloak of religion between the eye of the ſpectator and the light of truth: in vain oppoſe Machiavelian tricks to the plain dictates of reaſon and juſtice. The rays of truth, diffuſed far and wide by the preſs, will open to view the lurking-places of tyranny, and foil the tempter in all his wiles. The ſovereign power, on the diſmiſſion of the emperor and the declared independance of the Belgic provinces, was exerciſed with great propriety by the States-General. Even, as in former *interregnums*, the ſame had been exerciſed by the ſtates in former times. The authority which, *pro re natâ*, they have aſſumed can only be temporary and proviſional: and for their aſſumption of this authority, as well as their uſe of it, they are reſponſible to the Belgic nation. It is moſt abſurd in the partiſans of ariſtocratical deſpotiſm to maintain the authority of the States-General, even to perpetuity, on the ground of averſion to innovation, and a regard to the preſervation of the antient conſtitution. The antient conſtitution of the Auſtrian Netherlands is no more. It fell by the ſtroke that cut off its head. In that head, Joſeph II. of Auſtria, repreſentative of the dukes of Burgundy, the functions of the other branches of the legiſlature centered. They were not original and abſolute, but relative and conditional. They had a reference to the ſovereign on the one hand, and to the people on the other, whoſe privileges it was their duty and buſineſs to protect againſt the encroachments of the ſovereign. They were a barrier,

barrier, an intermediate power, between the ſovereign and his ſubjects.—The ſovereign power being annihilated, or, what is worſe, the ſovereign power being ſuperadded to that of the States-General, where is there to be found any barrier or intermediate power between the people and this new, alarming, and monſtrous ariſtocracy?

But that the conſtitution of the States-General, even without the uſurpation of the ſovereign power, is highly ariſtocratical, is a fact which is not perhaps generally known to our readers, and which may therefore require ſome illuſtration.

The ſtates of Brabant, the freeſt of all the provinces, and the model to which the reſt wiſh on all occaſions to conform, is compoſed of three orders, the clergy, the nobility, and the third eſtate. It might therefore be naturally imagined that theſe three orders would involve, in one ſhape or other, a pretty fair repreſentation of the Belgic nation. But this is by no means the caſe. There is no repreſentation whatever of the great body of the common people, nor of the clergy, nor even of the nobleſſe and gentry. The right of ſitting and voting in the aſſembly of the ſtates is confined to the abbots of male convents, to about twenty-ſeven out of a numerous nobility, and to a few deputies from the different trades or corporations of the chief cities. Antiently the ſmaller cities or towns, and even the villages, were poſſeſſed of *franchiſes* which entitled them to ſeats in the third eſtate of the national aſſembly. But, from the natural proceſs of delegation and ſub-delegation in all popular power, the repreſentatives of the people of Brabant were limited, at laſt, to deputies from Louvain, Bruſſels, and Antwerp. Thus the conſtitution of the States-General of the Netherlands is the moſt ariſtocratical that can be well imagined. This aſſembly of men, in the conſtitution of which the public voice has ſcarcely any ſhare at all, can never be regarded as the repreſentation, or *genius*, if we may ſay ſo, of the nation.—But, if they had indeed a title to be regarded in this light, ſtill they would not have any title to aſſume the reins of government, and to convert a *ſubordinate*, or if they will, for the ſake of argument, a *co-ordinate*, into an abſolute power; the *parliament* of the catholic provinces would, at beſt, be in the predicament of the parliament of Great-Britain during the interregnum occaſioned by the late indiſpoſition of the king. Though this aſſembly was infinitely more popular than the States-General, and had fairer pretenſions to be conſidered as the voice of the people, they never conceived the idea of governing the nation, even for a time, by their own authority, but proceeded without delay to the declaration of a regent. Experience had taught the Britiſh nation to conſider a perpetual parliament, exerciſing a direct power over the people without any control, as an object of ter-

for.—The partial, ſummary, and iniquitous proceedings of the Engliſh parliament in the time of Charles I. which ſerve as a reaſon to the Britiſh, ought alſo to forewarn the Belgic nation of the calamities to be apprehended of deſpotic power, whether it be lodged in the hands of one man, or of many.—The States-General are in the ſituation of a chamberlain or ſteward who, on the death of his lord, continues, without any expreſs commiſſion, to manage affairs for the benefit of his lawful heir, to whom he gives an account of his conduct: or of a character known to the Romans and the Roman law, under the name of *negotiorum geſtor*.

The States-General are therefore reſponſible to the people for all that they have done and adviſed ſince the depoſition of the emperor. The ſooner that they call a national aſſembly, the more effectually will they ſecure their own ſafety, and the tranquillity and ſecurity of the common-wealth. If the Belgic provinces are not yet ripe for a civil conſtitution, framed on the model of that which is in the act of being reared in France, at leaſt let a ſucceſſor be appointed to Joſeph II.; at leaſt let the conſtitution, ſuch as it was before the diſmiſſion of that ambitious man, be reſtored; and let improvements be made afterwards, as opportunities may invite, and as the ſpirit of the times may bear or require. Till the old conſtitution be reſtored, or a new one eſtabliſhed on the baſis of liberty and juſtice, it would be the greateſt madneſs in the triple alliance, or in any other power, to enter into a treaty with the catholic provinces. The prieſts, and the diſciples of the prieſts, who imagine that they can, in the preſent conjuncture, raiſe a laſting fabric on feudal and even deſpotic ground, are like the hypocrites in the ſcriptures, who could diſcern the 'face of the ſky, but not the ſigns of the times,' they do not diſtinguiſh the accidental *huzza* of a mob, from the ſteady efficacy of *opinion*, which, deſcending from the high to the low, and re-acting from the low on the high, as with ſecret magic governs the world. If ever honeſty was the beſt policy, it is in the preſent times of light, and a ſpirit of liberty. The hollow foundations of prieſtcraft and tyranny cannot long bear the trying hand of truth.

The modern Perſians, in order to give ſtability to the monuments they erect to their friends, or other edifices which they wiſh to remain to the lateſt poſterity, are careful to build them with *lawful* money, that is, money not acquired by oppreſſion and tyranny: for they ſay, that ſuch buildings as have been erected by tyrants ſoon moulder and fade away; whilſt, on the contrary, the works of good and juſt princes endure, unhurt, for ages. What the Perſians ſuperſtitiouſly affirm of material, may with juſtice be applied to political edifices.

There

There is not any one inference that is ſo frequently ſuggeſted by the ſtudy of hiſtory and politics, as the inability of princes to control futurity, and the conſtant change of human affairs. An alliance has been formed between

POLAND AND PRUSSIA,

Though it is not yet twenty years ſince Frederic II. of Pruſſia concerted the diſmemberment and partition of that kingdom with Auſtria and Ruſſia. The Auſtrians and Ruſſians, who had ſo long been conſidered as the natural allies and friends, are now greatly eſtranged, and indeed we may ſafely ſay hoſtilely diſpoſed towards England: while the king of Sweden, the ally and almoſt the dependent of France, has thrown himſelf into the arms of Great Britain and the triple alliance. The late revolution has ſequeſtered France, for a time, from the ſyſtem of continental politics: but before that event, the court of Verſailles had entered into a ſecret treaty, and was ſecretly aiding Auſtria, the enemy of France for three centuries, to extend her dominion and power, by conqueſts on the ſide of Turkey. The famous family compact among the branches of the family of Bourbon has probably received its death's-wound. New ſentiments, new cares, and new orders, have taken place in France, and await Spain, Naples, and Parma.

Among the belligerent powers in Europe, the moſt brilliant part, without doubt, has been acted by the king of Sweden, who had the courage to attack the empreſs of Ruſſia, fortified by the alliance of Auſtria and Denmark, and in the career of victory over the Turks. The king has been governed, it would ſeem, by a maxim of his illuſtrious relation, the late king of Pruſſia, who ſays, that in great affairs no man, however diſcouraging the circumſtance in which he is placed, needs to be afraid to ſtrike a blow, provided that he does it with courage, and goes on with prudence and perſeverance; friends and conjunctures will ariſe, which, rightly improved, will carry him through all difficulties. The Swedes, though they have not made any conqueſts, have yet galled the Ruſſians not a little, and fully ſuſtained the martial renown of the Swediſh nation both by ſea and land. The activity and perſonal courage of the king in raiſing an army of Delecarlians, when he was deſerted by ſo many of the regular regiments; and in haſtening, by a moſt rapid journey, almoſt alone, to forbid the ſurrender, and to defend GOTTENBURG againſt the invading Danes, preſaged other inſtances of heroiſm, when the Daniſh troops returned within their own confines, and a truce was brought about between the Danes and Swedes, by the interceſſion of Pruſſia and England. The valour of the king's brother, the Duke of Sudermania, ſhone forth with equal luſtre at ſea.

Yet,

Yet, on a review of the conduct of Sweden, in her late attack on Ruſſia, we cannot help doubting whether there was not more of ſpirit than of military prudence: we mean, not in her making war at all, but in her mode of making it. Had the king of Sweden, inſtead of encountering the Ruſſians at ſea, and leading an army into the Ruſſian territories by a long land-march, delayed the commencement of hoſtilities until the Ruſſian fleet ſhould have ſailed out of the Baltic, and then moved his troops over in tranſports, under the protection of his ſhips of war, into Livonia, Lithuania, and Courland, his campaign, one would imagine would in all likelihood have been more productive.

But here again we are to conſider, that the king of Sweden had entered into engagements, and was ſubſidized by the Ottoman court, to whom he performed excellent ſervice, by crippling and detaining the Ruſſian fleet in the Baltic. It muſt be owned, that it is impoſſible for a ſpectator to judge with any degree of accuracy concerning the conduct of princes, without being acquainted with their ſecret councils. We readily acknowledge this: and we hope by this acknowledgment, and the candour with which we give the *pro* and the *con* of every thing, according to appearances, and to mark the varying ſhades that overcaſt the political horizon, will obviate thoſe ſneers and cavils that many who hear of the ſucceſs will be ready to throw out againſt this monthly ſpeculation.—To return to our ſubject.—Sweden is to be conſidered as the ally of

TURKEY,

And Turkey, not yet diſpirited or exhauſted, as combined with Sweden, Poland, Pruſſia, Holland, and England, in hoſtile deſigns againſt the ambitious powers of the Ruſſians and Auſtrians. The movements and military preparations in Poland and Pruſſia on the one part, and Gallicia on the other, indicate the approach of a general war in Europe.

Such are preſent appearances; but a few, a very few alterations in the political drama, even a ſingle incident, may totally change the *denouement* and iſſue of the whole. The fate of Europe hangs, perhaps, on the life of one man. His death might turn war into peace. A new order of affairs might probably furniſh new matter for uncertain conjecture and anticipation. Of the illneſs of the

EMPEROR

we have had, for years, repeated accounts; and the lateſt of theſe preſage a ſpeedy diſſolution. His indiſpoſition, water in the thorax, is certainly of ſuch a nature as defies the power of medicine; and though, by means of palliatives, he may be enabled to prolong a miſerable exiſtence for a ſhort period, that

period

period cannot be extended verylong. It therefore becomes a very natural queſtion, What effects would the death of the emperor, in all probability, produce on the face of Europe. And here a new character is introduced on the theatre, whoſe mild and gracious aſpect announces peace on earth, and good-will towards men.

THE GRAND DUKE OF TUSCANY

is diſtinguiſhed by all that good-nature which belongs to the Auſtrian race. Though his talents are not above mediocrity, yet ſincerely deſirous of doing good, he employs them to the beſt purpoſes. His code of laws, aboliſhing capital puniſhments; prohibiting that remain of barbarity, impriſonment for debt; and breathing, on the whole, a ſpirit of philanthropy, ſhew that this prince is more ambitious of emulating the virtues of an Aurelius than the abilities of a Julius Ceſar. The tyrannical meaſures of his brother, the emperor, reſpecting the inhabitants of the Low Countries, he diſapproved. He makes no ſcruple to condemn the turbulent ambition of Joſeph in plain terms. There is not a doubt but the councils of this prince, on his acceſſion to the Auſtrian, and perhaps to the Imperial throne, will be wholly pacific. The alliance between the courts of Peterſburgh and Vienna would be diſſolved; war would be at an end with the Turks; an open rupture with the triple alliance would be obviated; and, what is of the greateſt political importance, a voluntary return, perhaps, of the Belgic Provinces, on certain conditions for the ſecurity of their privileges, under the amiable repreſentative of the Houſe of Burgundy. We conſider this event to be of the greateſt political importance, becauſe the growth of a new power, that muſt divide and agitate the nations, would be thus prevented. It is not, in this obſervation, implied that the prevention of ſuch a power is a thing to be deſired, being clearly of opinion that the more the human race is divided into different nations, the more is the energy of the human mind excited and diſplayed in various talents and virtues; we ſpeak not of what is right in morals, but probable in politics.

Even if the emperor ſhould unexpectedly recover ſome tolerrable ſhare of health, and be able to reſume the reins of government, which it is ſaid he has committed to a council, it is not improbable that an attempt would be made to appeaſe the Belgic nation, by transferring the ſovereignty of the Netherlands from the emperor to ſome other member of the Houſe of Auſtria. This would be a kind of ſalvo for the honour of the emperor, and preſerve his influence at the ſame time in the Low Countries. It was thus that Philip II. of Spain, when he found himſelf unable to ſubdue the revolters, transferred the government of the Netherlands to the Archdukes Ferdinand and Iſabella.

bella. One practical inference may be drawn from these observations by the States-General of the Belgic Provinces. They should be very cautious how they give offence to the volunteers and patriots, and all the reasonable and enlightened part of the Belgic nation, by any thing that looks like a design to retain the supreme power in their own hands, without consulting the present inclinations; and future security of the people. A plain road lies before them, if they are to make an option between a limited monarchy and an aristocratical tyranny. It is now certain that there will soon be an election of a

KING OF THE ROMANS.

But as there are eight electors, and no provision is made for the case of an equal division of votes by the law of the empire, what is to be done if this possible case should actually happen? When the choice of an emperor was limited by an imperial edict to a few electors, the number fixed on was *seven*. This obviated the difficulties of the case we have supposed; and there were political reasons why there should be *seven* electors rather than seventeen, or any other number. But the reason alleged by the civilian Bartholus, who drew up the preamble to the edict, is very curious, being entirely cabbalistical. He says there should be seven electors corresponding to the seven candlesticks in the Revelations, the seven churches, and the seven theological virtues. There were lately nine electors. The death of the Duke of Bavaria has reduced them to eight.

THE KING OF GREAT-BRITAIN,

in order to qualify himself for voting in the election of a King of the Romans, will, in the course of the ensuing summer, appear at an Imperial Diet in Germany. This point is fixed, and preparations are making for his journey. Various circumstances connect this country with Germany more closely than it has been for thirty years past.

SESSIONS OF PARLIAMENT.

There has not been any extraordinary business carried on hitherto in the present session of the British parliament. The usual subsidies have been voted for the civil and military establishment. The circumstances of the times might, in the opinion of some, justify a reduction in both the army and navy. But what almost all are agreed in is, that the Duke of Richmond's additions to the fortifications of Gibraltar, and his scattered fortifications on the coasts, instead of our centrical fortress in the middle of Jamaica, and one or two more of our islands, is not only a needless, but a most mischievous waste of the public money; because such extended, in place of compact fortifications, require

require more troops to man them, and present a broader face and more points of attack to the enemy. Administration are aware of all this, but still think it necessary to humour the *ædc-mania* of the Duke of Richmond. Yet half the public money that is spent upon these injudicious projects would attach to the p rson and views of the minister three times the support that his grace gives to his measures.

It is not probable that Mr. Pitt was sincere in the countenance he gave to Mr. Wilberforce's bill, any more than he was in his own bill for a reform of parliamentary representation. But the hopes held out to the negroes have had such effects in the West Indies, that the planters are seriously alarmed, and dread insurrections and murder.

TEST-ACT.

We look forward now to the debates in parliament concerning the test-act; which will hold a similar place among great and interesting debates that the skirmishes of kites and crows hold among campaigns and battles. What is it the Dissenters complain of? If they be sincere religionists, if their minds be really set on things above; if they are indifferent to all earthly concerns, and look, according to the profession of their faith, with eager expectation, *to a city that is to come*; who interrupts them in their heavenly career? Have they not the full enjoyment of religious liberty? But if they are more interested in the affairs of earth than in those of heaven; if they are lukewarm believers, or, as is said, freethinkers, Why do they startle at ceremonies which are at least innocent? Does any man pretend to have more sense than Julius Cesar? Yet Cesar, who was a freethinker, did not hesitate to accept the office of PONTIFEX MAXIMUS. The Dissenters are active, able, ambitious, closely-united, and persevering in their pursuits. Their great delight, since they are not allowed to build up, is to pull a noble edifice to pieces. Let them be once vested with the executive, and they will carry their inroads into the legislative government.

THE TRIAL OF MR. HASTINGS,

which was at first an object of curiosity, then of ridicule, and afterwards of *ennui* and disgust, begins now to excite sentiments of indignation. The character of Mr. Hastings has stood the test of a severe inquisition. This is universally acknowledged; while every mouth is full of the resentments and the political views that hath urged a disappointed and desperate party against him.

☞ *Communications for* THE ENGLISH REVIEW *are requested to be sent to* Mr. MURRAY, No. 32, Fleet-street, London; *where Subscribers for this Monthly Performance are respectfully desired to give in their Names.*

THE

ENGLISH REVIEW,

For MARCH 1790.

ART. I. *A General History of the Othoman Empire. Dedicated to the King of Sweden. Translated from the French of M. de M—— D'Ohsson, Knight of the Royal Order of Vasa, Secretary to the King of Sweden, formerly his Interpreter and Chargé d'Affaires at the Court of Constantinople. The Work is enriched and elucidated by valuable Engravings: Vol. I.* 4to. 5l. 5s. Robinsons. London, 1789.

AN authentic history of the Othoman empire has hitherto been wanting to the republic of letters. Religious and political prejudices have separated the Turks in such a manner from the rest of mankind, as to render it extremely difficult to obtain an accurate knowledge of the principles of their government. Effects have been noticed, but their causes have remained unknown. From a distant, superficial, and transitory view of their customs, manners, religion, and laws, false ideas of them have been diffused through every part of Europe.

For gaining a just knowledge of the Othoman people, the author of the present work seems to have possessed very advantageous opportunities. Born at Constantinople, intimately acquainted with the Turkish language, sustaining a political character, and employed during his whole life in the service of a court, whose friendship was unsuspected by the ministers and public officers, Chevalier D'Ohsson was enabled to surmount those impediments which had been heretofore found to be irresistible. A comparison of the native historians with the erroneous

and imperfect accounts given by foreign writers, urged him, he tells us, to compoſe a hiſtory of the Othoman empire, derived from the original and only true ſources of information. In the progreſs of his laborious work, he perceived the neceſſity of previouſly explaining the tenets, the mode of worſhip, the manners, and the public adminiſtration of the Othoman people; but particularly that remarkable, univerſal code, which, digeſted by *Ibrahim Halèby*, and conſecrated under the name of *Multeka*, conſtitutes the religious legiſlation of that extenſive empire. This part of his undertaking was expoſed to peculiar difficulties. His zeal, however, he tells us, was not relaxed by impediments. Indefatigable induſtry, the means of information which the exerciſe of his employment and the particular commiſſions reſpecting the immediate ſervice of the *Porte* afforded him, and his perſonal connexions with the principal officers of ſtate, have rendered the execution of his work ſuperior, he ſays, to his own expectations. We give him full credit for his diligence, and think that his talents are not exceeded by his aſſiduity.

He not only endeavoured, he aſſures us, to obtain the moſt complete intelligence concerning the government, but he ſtudied, in the original volumes, the doctrine and univerſal code of Iſlamiſm, aſſiſted by a theologian and a lawyer, men of the greateſt learning and of the higheſt reputation in the empire.

With regard to the public adminiſtration, he derived his information from the miniſters, the officers actually employed, and even from thoſe who preſided over the offices belonging to the different departments of the ſtate. They extended ſo far their confidence and kindneſs, as to give him extracts from their reſpective regiſters; theſe extracts are now in his poſſeſſion; on theſe his claim to authenticity is entirely founded; and in his eſtimation, he declares, that truth and the moſt ſcrupulous accuracy, conſtitute the firſt merit of his work, the produce of twenty-two years of anxiety and labour. Flattered by his having undertaken to tranſlate their annals, and to give Chriſtian Europe an idea of the Othoman power, there was no mark of kindneſs which they did not continue to ſhew him till his departure from Conſtantinople on the 9th of March, 1784.

Even the officers of the palace furniſhed him with information reſpecting the ſeraglio, the ſultan, and the royal houſehold. He was indebted for his intelligence concerning the ſultanas, *Cadinns*, and the imperial *Harem*, to the female ſlaves of the ſeraglio. After ſome years of ſervitude, many of theſe obtain their liberty; they then quit the imperial palace, and are given in marriage to certain officers of the court, who always ardently ſolicit an union with them, in hopes of being advanced by their intereſt with thoſe ladies and ſultanas, of whom they have been previouſly the

ſervile

ſervile dependants. By the information of theſe officers, and of the Chriſtian women who are allowed a free acceſs to them as ſoon as they depart from the ſeraglio, our author tells us, he has rectified thoſe erroneous opinions which he himſelf had formed concerning the ſultanas, the ladies, and the Harem of the Grand Signior.

This work is divided into two parts, entirely diſtinct and ſeparate; the one comprehends the Mahometan legiſlation, the other the hiſtory of the Othoman empire.

The Mahometan legiſlation is divided into five codes, the religious, civil, criminal, political, and military; and is preceeded by an introduction, which ſhews the ſpirit of that legiſlation, and explains whatever has a reference to the ancient *Imams*, the doctors, interpreters of the law, and the founders of four religious rites, which have an equal claim to orthodoxy.

I. The RELIGIOUS CODE comprehends three parts, the dogmas, the external worſhip, and the morality of the Othomans. In the *dogmatical* part are exhibited the articles of faith digeſted by *Omer Neſſefy*; theſe are illuſtrated by hiſtorical and political obſervations, and afford an idea of the coſmogony of the Mahometans, of their traditions concerning the remoteſt ages, of their reſpect for the patriarchs and prophets, of their peculiar veneration for the perſon of Jeſus Chriſt, of their opinions reſpecting *Mohammed*, his diſciples, the four firſt khaliphs, their ſaints, &c.: here an account is alſo given of the principal hereſiarchs; in this part of the religious code are ſhewn the true ſpirit of their dogma reſpecting predeſtination, the wiſdom of their law concerning the illuſions of judicial aſtrology, the prejudices which ſo powerfully prevail amongſt them; in fine, whatever has a reference to the *Imameth*, that is, to the religious functions of the ſovereign, his titles, his rights, and the qualities which it is neceſſary he muſt poſſeſs, in order to be deemed worthy, according to the canonical law, to reign over the Mahometan people.

In the *ritual part* is deſcribed whatever regards the external worſhip of the Mahometans; namely, 1. The meaning, nature, and uſe of purifications, the circumſtances which conſtitute a ſtate of legal purity or impurity in either ſex; from whence the true cauſe of their frequent uſe of warm baths is fully explained; 2. The prayer *Namaz*, to which every muſſulman is bound to devote his attention five times a day; the eſſence and nature of this part of their external worſhip; the public ceremony on Fridays, and on the two feſtivals of *Beyram*; the peculiar prayers deſtined for the ſick, for travellers, and ſoldiers; thoſe which are conſecrated for the thirty nights of *Ramazann*, for public calamities, for uncommon events; the ceremonies of circum-

ciſion, thoſe of funerals, &c. here alſo are explained the cuſtoms which are of human inſtitution; whatever relates to the inſide of the moſques, the preaching of their *Scheykhs*, their veneration for particular nights in the year, and for the relicks of their prophet; 3. The charitable tithe impoſed on all the rich, and derived from that part of their property employed in luxury or commerce; the ſacrifices to which all the citizens in eaſy circumſtances are commanded to ſubmit; the foundations or pious gifts; the temples of Muſſulmaniſm; the various edifices which ſurround theſe, and which are deſigned for the inſtruction of youth, the relief of the poor, and the public utility, ſuch as hoſpitals, hotels, ſchools, colleges, libraries; the *Wakfs*, or property conſecrated to their ſupport, as well as to that of the moſques, and of the miniſters who perform religious duty in them, together with the rules of their adminiſtration.

This is a comprehenſive view of what is contained in the firſt volume of an elaborate work, which, when finiſhed, the author ſuppoſes, will conſiſt of ſeven or eight. But before we give our readers an idea of the manner in which it is executed, it will not be improper, perhaps, to exhibit the author's plan for the remainder of his work, as he explains it in his preliminary diſcourſe.

In the *ritual part* of the religious code the author means to deſcribe, 4. The faſt in the month of *Ramazann*, and the auſtere penitence with which it is kept, which conſiſts in abſtaining from food from ſun-riſe till ſun-ſet, without taking even a drop of water; and the religious attention of the people in general to obſerve it with the ſtricteſt rigour: other abſtinences are here alſo mentioned, as likewiſe the ſpiritual retreat, the illumination of the moſques in *Ramazann*, and the various etiquettes obſerved by the court during the thirty nights of this month; and, 5. The pilgrimage to *Mecca*, with all the laws and cuſtoms which are attendant on that important act of Iſlamiſm. The obſervations annexed to theſe circumſtances have a relation to the events which were anterior to the time of *Mohammed*, to the origin of the Arabs, to the foundation of Mecca, of its temple and ſanctuary, to the traditions which gave birth to the people's profound veneration for the *Kéabé*, to the ariſtocratic government of the ancient Arabs, &c. Proceeding afterwards to whatever has a reference to Mecca ſince the eſtabliſhment of Mahometaniſm, he intends to deſcribe the ſituation of that city, its political revolutions, its temple, its preſent ſanctuary, the rich oblations made in different ages, the black ſtone *Hadjher'uleſſwed*, the veil, and the external cincture of the *Kéabé*; the golden ſpout, the ſacred wells of *Zemzem*, the ſtations round the ſanctuary deſtined for the Muſſulmen who obſerve the four orthodox rites;

rites; the sacred camels, the *Suré Eminy*, commissary of the *Porte*, who is charged with the money sent annually by the Sultan to the two Arabian cities; the great caravan of pilgrims, who go from Syria to Mecca, conducted by the *Pascha* of *Damas*; the *Scherif* of Mecca, and the *Pascha* of *Djidda*; the preeminence of Mecca over Medina; the distinction enjoyed by the pilgrims during the remainder of their lives, &c. &c.

The *moral part* of the religious code is to comprehend four general points: 1. Whatever has a reference to food, aliments clean or unclean; the manner of hunting, or legally putting beasts to death; drink, game, animals permitted or forbidden; 2. The precepts relative to clothing, and to moveable effects, in which the use of precious metals is rigorously prohibited; 3. The labour prescribed to the men, who are commanded by the law to employ themselves in arts and trades; 4. The moral virtues, charity, probity, chastity, modesty, the duties of decorum, an attention to whatever may lead to vice, to dissipation, to a forgetfulness of God, such as games, instruments of music, images and figures of men and animals. The first code is to be concluded by a general discourse, which will describe, 1. The whole body of the *Oulémas*, from the *Mouphty* to the last of the *Naibs*; 2. The ministers who perform service in the mosques; and, 3, All the Mahometan *Derwischs*, who are divided into thirty-three different orders of hermits.

II. The CIVIL CODE will consist of thirty-one books, subdivided into many chapters and articles. The author here will make mention of the marriages of the Mussulmen and the Non-mussulmen who are tributary subjects of the empire; of those of the slaves, &c.; of the nuptial gift or dowry with which the husband must present his wife; of the equality of treatment which the Mussulman is obliged to observe towards his wives; of the legitimation of children; of the aliments legally due from the husband to the wife, from the father to the children, and from children to their indigent fathers or mothers; of repudiations, perfect, imperfect, conditional, &c.; of divorce in consequence of a legal procedure; of the enfranchisement of slaves of both sexes; of the legal interdiction; of the qualification of slaves; of the age of majority; of the rights of minors, of old men, of hermaphrodites, of the dumb, of those who have impediments in their speech; of foundlings; of run-away slaves; of persons who have lost their way; of things found; of commercial societies; of sales and purchases; of bail; of assignments; of letters of attorney; of trust; of loans; of gifts between living persons; of leases and rents; of acts of violence; of rapes; of vicinal redemption; of agriculture; of mortgages; of civil testaments; of guardians and testamentary executors; of the rights of inheritance;

ritance; of the legal diſtribution of moveable and immoveable property; in fine, of the laws concerning the adminiſtration of juſtice, reſpecting the qualities which the magiſtrates are required to poſſeſs, judicial ſuits, evidence, the deciſory oath, judicial acknowledgments, arbitration, compoſitions agreed to by the parties, the right of impriſonment, &c. &c.

III. The CRIMINAL CODE will deſcribe the corporal puniſhments inflicted on thoſe who are guilty of adultery, of drinking wine, of contumelious language, of domeſtic ſtealing, of apoſtacy, of rebellion, of highway robbery, &c. Here alſo are inſerted the laws reſpecting the price of blood, and the puniſhment of retaliation, a limb for a limb, blood for blood, &c. with the forms and modes of proceeding in theſe reſpective caſes.

IV. The POLITICAL CODE affords information on four important ſubjects: 1. The laws of the revenue, which comprehend the taxes impoſed on the commerce of the Muſſulmen, and on that of the Non-Mahometan ſubjects and ſtrangers; the taxes of lands titheable and tributary; capitation, which all the Non-Mahometan ſubjects are obliged to pay; mines, or other valuable diſcoveries; in fine, the legal uſe of all the public revenue. In the obſervations annexed to this chapter, is calculated the ſtate of the income and expences of the empire; and an account is given of the *Deſtarderie*, or department of the miniſter of the finances, compoſed of thirty-four offices, all relating to the adminiſtration of the public funds. 2. The laws which concern the tributary ſubjects, the Chriſtian churches, &c. 3. Thoſe which relate to ſtrangers reſiding in Mahometan countries, and to Mahometans who are in the country of ſtrangers; and, 4, The rights of the Sultan in his character of ſupreme *Imam*. Here alſo, in a general diſcourſe, is ſhewn the ſtate of the Othoman empire, and the form of its conſtitution. Among many other intereſting particulars an account will be given of the private life of the Sultan, his occupations, his ordinary and extraordinary amuſements; of the princes, *Schah Zadés*, and of the princeſſes of the blood to whom excluſively belongs the title of *Sultana*.

V. The MILITARY CODE will treat of war and its rights; of captives; of legal plunder; of the diviſion of plunder between the monarch and his army, &c. It will contain alſo an account of all the forces of the empire, infantry, cavalry, regular and irregular troops, the feudal militia, &c.; the actual ſtate of the marine, with the regulations relative to each corps of the ſoldiery; this plan comprehends an account of all the forces, both by land and ſea, belonging to the Othoman monarchy.

The SECOND PART of the work will comprehend the history of the house of Mahomet, from its earliest origin to the present time; it is derived from the only true source of information, the annals of the monarchy. These annals, says our author, though written in pompous and emphatic language, bear however strong impressions of truth, fidelity, and exactness. They possess a valuable advantage in having been digested by the first personages of the state. In these, many have related the events of the age in which they lived, some from a love of letters, others in the character of public historiographers of their country.

The history of a long period of the Othoman monarchy has been written by contemporary authors, many of them highly esteemed, both for the purity and elegance of their style, and for the sagacity and depth of their reflections.

Such is the plan, and such are the materials of Chevalier D'Ohsson's History of the Othoman Empire. Though he has descended to a degree of minuteness which by some readers will perhaps be thought tedious, yet it should be remembered that he describes a people of whom we had previously but a scanty and imperfect knowledge. At first view he may appear to have entered into too nice a detail respecting the religious tenets and popular prejudices of the Mahometans; but it should be considered that an acquaintance with these enables his readers to account for many extraordinary facts, which otherwise would be deemed incredible. A commentary upon a religious code, however useful to be known, must be expected to be somewhat insipid; yet the author has contrived to enliven even this part of his work with such curious anecdotes as render it considerably interesting.

To shew the attachment of the Mahometans to ancient superstitions, though expressly condemned by their prophet, the author, among other extraordinary facts, relates the following:

'Osman I. being allowed by his father to associate only with the *Scheykhs* and *Oulémas*, men of learning and virtue, often visited an aged *Scheykh*, who lived in the neighbourhood of *Esky-Schehher*. He was called *Scheykh-Edebaly*; he was eminent for his piety and speculative knowledge. *Osman* entertained for him a peculiar respect and attachment. He frequently passed days and whole nights in his society; he had a taste for the charms of his conversation, and profited by his lessons of morality, philosophy, and religion. But his happiness was soon troubled by an event which seldom occurs among a people where there is no social intercourse between the sexes. Chance presented to his view the daughter of this *Scheykh*, who possessed uncommon beauty. Enamoured with her charms, *Osman* found occasion to communicate to her his passion and his hopes. The chastest modesty dictated the reply of the young woman,

whose name was *Malhoun-Khatun*. *I am far*, said she, *from nourishing a deceitful hope; the immense distance which birth and fortune interpose between us can never permit the daughter of a* Scheykh, *whose whole possession is his religion and his virtue, to aspire to so exalted an alliance*. This answer inflamed still more the passion of *Osman*. Not daring to confess it to his father, or to the *Scheykh*, he communicated it to the governor of *Esky-Schehher*, with whom he was intimately connected, and requested his endeavours to obtain the consent of his father; but he experienced from him the blackest perfidy. Captivated with the delightful picture which he drew of his mistress, the governor exerted his whole power to extinguish the flame of *Osman*, and to obtain for himself the hand of *Malhoun-Khatun*. Her father, the enemy of ambition and human greatness, wished only for a son-in-law distinguished for his virtue, who should, like himself, place true happiness in the possession of a moderate fortune, and in the exercise of piety and religion. Informed of the vices which tarnished the birth and rank of the governor of *Esky-Schehher*, he did not hesitate to refuse his daughter. The vindictive conduct of the governor soon obliged *Scheykh Edebaly* to change his place of residence. He retired to the territories of *Ertoghroul*, in the neighbourhood of *Sengutdjik*. Acquainted with the secret motive of the altercation between the *Scheykh* and the governor, *Osman* indulged the warmest emotions of resentment; and the keenest hatred of rivalship was instantly kindled between him and the perfidious governor. The events and political effects of this animosity belong, however, to the historical part of the present work.

'It will be sufficient to mention here, that in the midst of this civil war between the party of the governor and that of *Osman*, this young prince, inflamed with the same passion for *Malhoun-Khatun*, though silent through fear of offending his father and the *Scheykh-Edebaly*, went one day to visit the sage in his new situation. After expressing to him sentiments the most affectionate and elevated, he retired to his apartment, and passed the greatest part of the night in prayer and meditation. Prostrate on the earth, he supplicated God, with fervent tears, to direct his heart and mind, to stifle in him every sentiment repugnant to virtue, to teach him to act worthy of his name and dignity, to enable him to defend the doctrine of the *Cou'raun*, and to propagate the tenets of its author. Amidst these ecstasies, overcome with sleep, he saw in a dream a placid light, equal to the brightness of a full moon, issue forth from the side of the *Scheykh Edebaly*, and terminate its rapid course in his own navel; from this immediately sprung up a prodigious tree; its stem touched the clouds; its branches were innumerable, and loaded with delicious fruit; its foliage was immensely thick and extensive, and seemed to cover the universe; one of its branches, distinguished above the rest by its beautiful and shining verdure, inclined towards *Constantinople* and the West, in the form of a sabre; under the shade of this tree, and at the extremity of the prospect, were discovered plains and mountains, pastures and shepherds, houses and edifices; numberless rivers and springs diffused every where the purest streams; crowds of people resorted thither from all parts of the world, some

to

to quench their thirst, others to water their fields, to erect fountains and aqueducts, to take exercise and repose in its fragrant walks; all were in transports of joy, astonishment, and admiration.

'Struck with this prodigy, *Osman* ran with the tenderest emotion to the *Scheykh Edebaly*, who possessed in a superior degree the art of interpreting dreams. At Osman's recital the old man was confounded; but recovering his spirits, he assured the young prince that his miraculous vision announced his future power and greatness: the tree which he had seen was the mysterious tree of *Touba*, one of the wonders of Paradise; the moon's rising from his side and setting in his navel, was an emblem of the intimacy which subsisted between them on account of their union of sentiment respecting faith, doctrine, and virtue; the flourishing state of the tree, its fruit, branches, and foliage, foretold the prosperity of his family and dominions; the plains and mountains, the pastures and shepherds, the rivers and springs, shewed the extent of his monarchy, and the immensity of his possessions; the branch inclining towards the West and Constantinople, indicated plainly the conquest of that superb capital of the eastern empire by a prince of his family; the various people, in fine, who walked under its shade, represented the different nations who, under his sceptre and laws, would enjoy the advantage of a mild, equitable, and prosperous government.

'The *Scheykh Edebaly*, however, interpreted still further this mysterious dream: he thought the light which issued from his side must mean his daughter, then in her fifteenth year; and, considering this vision as a celestial warning, he hastened to communicate it to *Ertoghroul*, who imbibed his opinion, and determined immediately to form an alliance, which foretold, in such striking characters, the greatness of his family.

'Though this dream may be supposed an artful contrivance between the *Scheykh* and *Osman*, yet it had a decisive influence on the mind of *Ertoghroul*. It is mentioned by almost every oriental historian, and particularly by *Idriss Bidlissy*, who animates his narrative by ingenious verses on the amours of the founder of the Ottoman monarchy.'

Of the style of the translation, which we have found to be not only faithful but elegant, our readers themselves will be able to form an opinion from this quotation.

This volume is illustrated by an Atlas of very fine engravings, which must have been executed at a great expence. And this accounts for the high price of the work, which, however, though the plates are the same, is two guineas less than that of the French edition.

ART.

ART. II. *An Eſtimate of the Temperature of different Latitudes. By Richard Kirwan, Eſq. F. R. S. and Member of the Academies of Stockholm, Upſal, Dijon, Dublin, Philadelphia, &c.* 8vo. 5s. boards. Elmſly. London, 1787.

METEOROLOGY is one of the moſt beautiful and intereſting ſubjects in the hiſtory of Nature. It is cloſely connected with the common affairs of life, and the knowledge of it is equally ſubſervient to the peaceful labours of the huſbandman, and the adventurous toils of the mariner. Hence it was cultivated from the earlieſt ages of antiquity; but the ſtudy of it was generally committed to the vulgar, and obſervations made that were vague, local, and tinctured with ſuperſtition. The modern diffuſion of natural knowledge has reſcued meteorology from obſcurity. Since the introduction of the barometer and thermometer in the laſt century, theſe inſtruments have been prodigiouſly multiplied, and accurate regiſters have been kept, and obſervations made, in various parts of the globe. We are happy to ſelect as the benefactor of mankind, from the numerous herd of inſignificant ſovereigns, the name of Charles Theodore, Elector Palatine of the Rhine. This wiſe prince erected the Meteorological Academy of Manheim, in his own principality, and ordered the beſt inſtruments to be conſtructed and ſent to all the academies and univerſities in Europe.

It is well aſcertained that the heat of the globe is not derived from central fires, but merely from the ſolar rays. The warmth is produced at the ſurface, where the particles of light are abſorbed. It is promoted by the intenſity of the light, by the altitude of the ſun, and by his continuance above the horizon; and it is ſometimes augmented by the condenſation of vapours. The generation of heat may be ſuſpended by the obſcurity or darkneſs of the weather; but active cold is always produced by the converſion of bodies from the ſolid to the liquid ſtate, or from that into an elaſtic fluid. Hence the preſence or abſence of the ſun, the evaporation or condenſation of vapour, are the great cauſes of the variety of climates, and the viciſſitudes of ſeaſons. There is only one grand ſource of heat therefore, while the other circumſtances may indifferently occaſion either heat or cold. What becomes of the perpetual accumulation of warmth? Is the heat carried off through the maſs of atmoſphere indefinitely into ſpace? Perhaps the ſuperfluous heat is ſpent in evaporating fluids, and perhaps the atmoſphere is perpetually increaſing. Beſides, the vapour, as it riſes into the ſuperior regions, acquires greater elaſticity, and conſequently continues to abſorb the ſurrounding warmth. Perhaps the ſteam is decompoſed in its aſcent, and the hydrogen gas, detached from the oxygen, produces the ſplendid phenomena of meteors.

If

If we abſtract from the local ſituation and circumſtances of the place, the temperature will be expreſſed with tolerable accuracy by a formula firſt propoſed by the celebrated aſtronomer Mayer. Let l denote the ſine of the latitude; then the medium annual temperature will be $84° - 53° \times l^2$ by Farenheit's ſcale. Hence the increment of temperature correſponding to one degree's advance to the equator is equal to the ſine of double the latitude. Between the tropics the variation of temperature is ſmall; it is greateſt at the latitude of 45°, and again diminiſhes as we approach to the pole. It ſcarcely ever freezes in lower latitudes than 35°, unleſs in very elevated places, nor hails in higher latitudes than 60°. Between the tropics the difference is ſmall between the heat of ſummer and winter; it conſtantly increaſes as we advance towards the poles. In general it may be denoted by the formula $5° + 25° \times l^2$. The coldeſt ſeaſon is in the middle of January, the hotteſt in July. The monthly variation of temperature is very irregular, and cannot be well aſcertained. In general the ſummer and winter are pretty uniform, and the greateſt variation takes place in the ſpring and autumn.

But the ſtandard of temperature is variouſly modified from the nature of the ſoil, its elevation, its diſtance from the ocean, &c. When the air is cloudy it receives heat from the abſorption of the ſolar rays; ſometimes it derives a partial warmth from the condenſation of vapours; but in general it participates of the temperature of the ſubſtances with which it is in contact. Water, from its ſuperior denſity, abſorbs the particles of light, and from its conducting quality becomes equally heated throughout. The ſuperficial water, as it is heated, becomes ſpecifically lighter and deſcends. Hence the temperature of lakes does not vary ſo much as that of the ſurrounding atmoſphere. When the air was at 81°, the water at the ſurface of the lake of Geneva was 62°, and at the depth of 87 feet 55°. In ſeas and in the ocean the variation is ſtill leſs. The gulf of Bothnia differs conſiderably from the temperature of the ocean, being ſometimes heated in ſummer to 70°, and commonly frozen in winter. The German ſea is about 5 degrees warmer in ſummer, and 3 degrees colder in winter, than the Atlantic. The Mediterranean is in general warmer than the Atlantic.

Earth receives heat from the ſun more readily than water, but conducts it ſlowly. Beſides, the light is ſpent in heating only the ſurface of the land, while it is nearly equally diffuſed through great bodies of water. In the neighbourhood of Marſeilles the land is often heated to 160°, when the ſea is only 77°. In winter the earth is ſometimes cooled to 14°, while the ſea is 44°.

In

In general, the land is 10° hotter in ſummer than the ſurrounding ſea, and as much colder in winter.

The great ſource of cold is evaporation. Hence a firm clayey ſoil, retaining cloſely the moiſture, does not readily loſe the heat which it has acquired. In ſtones or ſand, on the contrary, the moiſture being extremely divided and diffuſed, is quickly evaporated. Hence the intenſe cold of Terra del Fuego. Living vegetables, by their perſpiration, prodigiouſly aſſiſt evaporation. Tall impenetrable foreſts, beſides excluding the ſolar rays, are thus the active cauſes of cold. In Guyana in South-America, that part of the country which was lately cleared, is exceſſively hot; while in the wooded parts the inhabitants are obliged to light a fire every night. Cold is increaſed by every circumſtance that promotes the ſolution of water in the atmoſphere; by the heat of the air; by its denſity; by its dryneſs, by its motion, &c. Hence the aſtoniſhing effects of dry winds; as the Sirocco, Harmattan, &c. Lofty mountains are expoſed to the aerial motions, and liable to ſuffer evaporation; at the ſame time that the ſolar rays, falling obliquely, excite little heat. The ſummits of mountains, however, are, from their communication with the maſs of the earth, generally warmer than the air at the ſame altitude; and hence the winds generally tend towards them. As theſe aſcend the ſides of the mountains, they become rarer, depoſit their moiſture, and form fog; when they again deſcend, they greedily reabſorb the moiſture from the plains. Hence the effect of mountains in cooling the adjacent country. Even under the equator, and in ſummer, the mountains are, at the altitude of 16,000 feet, covered with ſnow. This is called *the lower point of congelation.* No vapour can riſe higher than 28,000 feet; and this is termed the higheſt point of congelation. As we advance to the poles, the curve of perpetual congelation approaches to the ſurface. In general, if d denote the exceſs of the annual temperature above 32°, the *lower point of congelation* will be at the altitude of $d \times 320$ feet, and the *higher* at $d \times 600$. The effect of elevation in reducing the medium temperature, cannot be accurately aſcertained. If the aſcent be at the rate of ſix feet in the mile, $\frac{1}{4}$ of a degree may be allowed for every 200 feet of altitude; if at the rate of 15 feet, half a degree may be allowed. Iſlands, participating of the temperature of the ſurrounding ocean, enjoy a milder climate than continents. The equatorial regions are cooled by the ſea breezes; but the higher latitudes derive additional warmth from the proximity of the ocean.

Our ingenious author proceeds to examine the obſervations that have been made at various places, and to aſſign the cauſes which have occaſioned the deviations from the ſtandard of temperature.

perature. The coaſt of Africa ſeems to be the hotteſt part of the globe. The air in the ſhade in Senegal is commonly 94°, and in the day time often 111°. In the interior parts of Aſia, in Siberia and Grand Tartary, every circumſtance contributes to produce intenſe cold. The land is extremely elevated, at an immenſe diſtance from the ocean, and covered with extenſive foreſts. Hence it is perhaps the chilleſt and the moſt inhoſpitable region upon the face of the globe. The temperature of America is in general 10° or 12° below the ſtandard. In ſummer the heat is often exceſſive, but in winter the moſt intenſe cold is felt. The north-weſt parts of the continent are lofty, barren, and mountainous; to the eaſtward are numerous and magnificent lakes, the lower country abounding in ſwamps and moraſſes, and covered with foreſts. Cultivation will therefore contribute, in ſome degree, to ameliorate the climate, as well as to improve the ſcanty ſoil.

The author concludes with ſome remarks upon the cauſes of unuſual cold in Europe: theſe, however, are, in our opinion, vague and indetermined. Our reſpect for the philoſophical author elevates him much above our verbal criticiſm. We have given an abſtract of his facts and reaſonings, and have ventured, in ſome inſtances, to generaliſe and extend them. Upon the whole, Mr. Kirwan deſerves the higheſt praiſe for the induſtry and ability with which he has treated this new but important ſubject.

ART. III. *Chemical Experiments and Opinions. Extracted from a Work publiſhed in the laſt Century.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Prince, Oxford; Murray, London. 1790.

AFTER the progreſs of ſcience is advanced, we are inclined to pauſe for a moment, and look back upon the labours of our predeceſſors. We are then able to ſelect the bright ideas which lie buried in the chaos of exploded opinions, and to eſtimate their real value and importance. The little jealouſies which diſturb the human breaſt are ſoothed into a calm, and we are diſpoſed, from pure benevolence, to venerate the worth and genius of a paſt age. The modern diſcoveries upon the ſubject of gaſes, are ſplendid and important; they throw light upon chemiſtry and phyſiology, and contribute to the convenience and ſupport of life. But theſe would appear to us as ſtill in their infancy, and the creation of yeſterday. We are ſurpriſed to find a philoſopher of the laſt century purſue the ſame tract of inveſtigation, and make ſeveral of the ſame diſcoveries. 'At the ſight of the 'repreſentation of Mayow's pneumatic apparatus annexed to this 'pamphlet, a certain northern profeſſor' (we ſuppoſe the celebrated Dr. Black) 'lifted up his hands in complete aſtoniſh-'ment.' The name of Mayow is now reſcued from oblivion, and

and muſt henceforth be ranked with Bacon and with Boyle. 'He threw away with ſcorn the vague ideas annexed by the old 'chemiſts to the terms ſulphur, mercury, &c. He has clearly 'preſented the notion of phlogiſton, which rendered the name 'of Stahl ſo celebrated. He perceived the action of dephlo-'giſticated air in almoſt all the wide extent of its influence; he 'was acquainted with the compoſition of the atmoſphere, and 'contrived to make the mixture of nitrous and atmoſpherical 'air. He was well aware of the cauſe of the increaſe of weight 'in the metallic calces, and diſtinctly aſſerted that certain baſes 'are rendered acid by the acceſſion of nitro-atmoſpherical par-'ticles, or what has ſince been denominated the acidifying prin-'ciple. He diſcovered the method of producing factitious gas, 'and obſerved its permanent elaſticity; and, what is ſtill more 'ſtrange,' he invented the nice art of transferring it from veſſel 'to veſſel. The doctrine of reſpiration is all his own. He has 'carried on his inveſtigation of this function from the diminu-'tion of the air by the breathing of animals (as well as the 'burning of bodies) to the change it produces in the blood dur-'ing its paſſage through the lungs, and the uſe of the placenta.' A genius ſo bold, ſo ſucceſsful, and ſo extraordinary, mightily raiſes our curioſity and gratitude. Dr. Beddoes, with whoſe abilities the public is well acquainted from his elegant tranſlation of Bergman and Spallanzani, endeavours, in a ſpirited introduction, to collect ſome particulars with regard to the life of Mayow. He was born in 1645, and was admitted a ſcholar of Wadham College at the age of 16. He had made his principal diſcoveries before the age of *twenty-three*. He ſhone bright for a time, but was ſoon extinguiſhed. He died in an apothecary's houſe near Covent-Garden in 1679, at the age of 34.

This pamphlet contains a tranſlation of the contents of Mayow's treatiſes, together with an analyſis. We are aſtoniſhed to obſerve the extent and boldneſs of his inquiries. There is ſcarcely a phenomenon in nature which he has not ventured to explain. He ſeems to have been led into his ſpeculations by the conſideration of the formation of nitre. This ſalt derives its alkali from the earth; its acid from the air, and from that portion of the atmoſphere which he terms fire-air or nitro-atmoſpherical. The motion of theſe aerial particles occaſions combuſtion. Hence the deflagration of nitre, and the current of air directed to burning bodies. He conceives that the alkali found in the aſhes of vegetables ariſes from the decompoſition of the nitre which they contained. The nitro-atmoſpherical particles paſs into the blood during reſpiration, and communicate warmth and the florid colour. He imagines that the umbilical

umbilical arteries carry to the fœtus, not only the nutricious juice, but alſo nitro-aerial particles, and thus ſupplies the want of reſpiration. The ſame remark he extends to chicken of an egg. We muſt obſerve, however, that Mayow is ſtrongly tinctured with the prejudices of his age. Like a ſanguine theoriſt, he fondly imagines that his nitro-aerial principle is the grand mover in nature. He applies it to the explanation of ſolidity and elaſticity; to that of the phenomena of water-ſpouts, thunder, and light, and colours. A lucid idea occaſionally burſts out of a crowd of wild and extravagant notions, and it requires an attention to the late diſcoveries to appreciate his true merit.

We cannot conclude without mentioning an important experiment which Dr. Beddoes ſlightly announces. Nitrous acid has been procured by tranſmitting dephlogiſticated air from Manganeſe along with atmoſpherical through a heated tube.

ART. IV. *On the Conſideration due to the Clergy from their Importance in Society; a Sermon preached at the Anniverſary Meeting of the Sons of the Clergy of Pembrokeſhire, on Tueſday June* 20, 1789, *in the Pariſh Church of St. Mary, Haverfordweſt. By Charles Symmonds, B D. Rector of Narbeth.* Printed for the Charity, by Roſs of Carmarthen. 4to. 1s. Williams, London. 1790.

IN this elegant compoſition the reverend author, after ſhewing the different ranks neceſſary in a ſtate of civil ſociety, and how much the exiſtence of all depends on the due ſupport of each, enters into an inquiry in what rank the prieſthood ſhould be held. In doing this, he preſents us with an hiſtorical deduction of the ſacred character, from the earlieſt ages to the ſtate in which we now ſee it.

'In the firſt ages,' obſerves our author, 'the ſacred was inſeparable from the royal character, the patriarch was the prieſt as well as king.' This leads him to deſcribe the honorary diſtinction conferred by God himſelf on the order, which continued as long as the Jewiſh diſpenſation laſted. When this gave way to an improved ſyſtem, the condition of the prieſthood was only *apparently* changed. With its ſplendid trappings it loſt no part of its dignity. Though he refuſed his direct ſanction to any particular form of church government, the bleſſed Founder of our religion ſuggeſted the eſtabliſhment of a prieſthood, of different degrees, by his firſt delegation of the twelve, and by his ſubſequent one of the ſeventy diſciples.

Our author gives next a very beautiful deſcription of the ſimplicity obſervable in the early ages of the Chriſtian church, dignified

dignified as it was only by the gifts of the Holy Ghoſt. Then traces it, as far as hiſtory will permit, through the darker ages. And while, with a candour that does him credit, he ſcorns to defend the then corrupted ſtate of the order, he ſeems very ſenſibly to feel the obloquy in which the religion itſelf has been involved through the degeneracy of its miniſters. Yet even in this gloomy period the prieſthood appears more enlightened than any other claſs, and to exert all its powers in protecting the weak, and reſtoring a kind of ſavage, morality; nor is it to be forgotten that the firſt attempts at a reformation were the intrepid efforts of a prieſt.

This leads our author to an inquiry into the preſent ſtate of the church and its miniſters. Here, while no allowance for human weakneſs is required further than what the ſeverity of ſcepticiſm would admit, it is boldly contended that the too common ſuggeſtions againſt the clergy are unfounded, illiberal, and unjuſt; that the ſeverity with which the few culprits it has to lament are *juſtly* treated, is a proof of a purity of morals in the body at large. The neceſſity of religion, and of an order of men ſet apart from the common concerns of life, is next ably inſiſted on. This naturally leads to a review of the manner in which the clergy are ſupported; and our author pathetically laments the peculiar hardſhip under which thoſe of the principality labour from the number of impropriations, and the poverty of its preferments.

Our author then proceeds to give an account of the charity for the benefit of which his ſermon was intended; and we ſincerely wiſh our limits would permit us to offer, in his own words, the many forceable arguments, and the delicate addreſſes to the feelings, with which this part abounds. We can, however, only conclude with referring our reader to the work, and with ſincerely wiſhing it may be attended with all the ſucceſs the intention of the preacher, and the importance of the object, entitle it to.

ART. V. *Letters upon the Poetry and Muſic of the Italian Opera: Addreſſed to a Friend. By the late Mr. John Brown, Painter.* Small 8vo. 3s. 6d. Bell, Edinburgh; Elliott, London. 1789.

IT appears Mr. Brown was not leſs endowed with a juſt taſte for painting than its ſiſter arts poetry, and more eſpecially muſic. The ſcience of the Italian opera was very familiar to him; and though he was a great admirer of it, he was not inſenſible of the abſurdities of modern refinement, in making taſte ſubſervient

ſubſervient to the difficulty of execution. After ſhewing the advantages that forceable expreſſions of the different paſſions might derive from the aid of muſic, the author apologiſes for recitative, inaſmuch as it prevents the perpetual tranſition from poetry to proſe, from muſic to plain ſpeaking, which diſgraces our Engliſh comic opera; that the muſic of the recitative, though for convenience confined to bars, is not ſubjected to preciſe muſical meaſure, but regulated by the natural proſody of the language. In a note ſubjoined to this paſſage our author illuſtrates the ſubject by producing ſeveral Italian words, which he ſhews have, in theſe muſical compoſitions, a degree of time allotted to them equal to the quantities they hold in common ſpeech: thus amo, conſiſting of a long and ſhort ſyllable, has for its firſt ſyllable a crotchet, for its ſecond a quaver, as amo, docile and flebile, making an exact Latin dactyle, have a ſimilar allotment of time in muſic, as docile, flebile. While our author diſcanted thus in praiſe of the application of the Italian language to muſical recitative, he might have recollected that the ſame may be done in any language that ever yet was ſpoken, or that can be ſpoken, that the ſame has ever been attended to in Engliſh burlettas, except where a deviation from it may ſerve to heighten any ludicrous event or expreſſion, as in the addreſs of Minerva to Paris in the burletta of the Golden Pippin;

'I'll make your fortune in the mi-litá-ry.'

Here the lengthening out the laſt word by a falſe quantity, adds much to the drollery of addreſſing ſuch a ſpeech to a powdered beau. While we are ready to allow the diſadvantages our language labours under from its too great abundance of conſonants, we think the laſt obſervation ſhews this does not render it unfit for muſical recitative; it is allowed by all that its force in heroic poetry is much increaſed; and we ſhall produce an inſtance to ſhew it is capable, when rightly managed, even in the ſonnet, of much ſoftneſs, without any violation of its true proſody. It is not a little remarkable, that in the muſic of the old ballad of Grammachree Molly, ſcarce a ſyllable ſhould be accented different from its proper pronunciation. Let us take the following line:

'Such fondneſs once for me was ſhewn.'

If the reader either read or ſing this line, he will be ſenſible of the force of our remark; let him tranſpoſe a ſingle ſyllable, and the truth of it will be more ſtriking:

'Such fondneſs *for me once* was ſhewn.'

By this apparently trifling alteration, *for* instead of *me* becomes a long syllable in reading, and has a crotchet instead of a quaver assigned it in the music; nor is the effect less striking, even to an ordinary ear, in the latter than in the former. Having taken the liberty of throwing in this little vindication of our own language, we shall proceed with the work before us. The author next marks, with equal justice and taste, the various powers of recitative, the manner in which it is, under different circumstances, connected with the air, and the advantages it frequently derives from the orchestra. The different species of airs are next considered, and their divisions marked with much clearness and propriety. We could have wished the examples produced had been translated into verse instead of prose, by which their effect would have been increased, and the whole assumed a more inviting and uniform air. The symphony is described with much perspicuity, and its varieties and occasional omissions traced.

The species of air are divided into *cantabile*, di *portamento di mezzo carattere*, *parlante*, di *bravura* or *di agilita*. These are all well described, and illustrated with suitable examples as well as remarks, for which we must refer the reader to the work itself. We shall offer the concluding observations as a specimen of the work, and as containing many useful hints to most performers and composers:

'From what has been said of the *aria di portamento*, the *cantabile*, the *mezzo carattere*, and the different subdivisions of the *aria parlante*, I hope I have, in some degree, made it plain to your lordship that there is no affection of the human breast, from the slightest and most gentle stirring of sentiment to the most frantic degrees of passion, which some one of these classes is not aptly suited to express. If this be true, other classes must be either bad or superfluous. This, in fact, is the case of the *aria di agilità*, or *aria di bravura*, as it is sometimes called; in treating of which, it will be almost sufficient to repeat to your lordship the description I gave of it in the general enumeration of the different classes; it is an air composed *chiefly*, indeed too often *merely*, to indulge the singer in the display of certain powers in the execution, particularly extraordinary agility or compass of voice. In such a composition, the *means* are evidently confounded with the *end* of the art; dexterity (if I may be allowed the expression) and artifice, instead of serving as the instruments, being made the object of the work; such are the airs which, with us, we so frequently observe sung to ears erect, and gaping mouths, whilst the heart, in honest apathy, is carrying on its mere animal function; and of this kind, indeed, are all the attempts, in the different arts, to substitute what is difficult or novel for what is beautiful and natural. Where there has ever been a genuine taste for any of the arts, this aptness to admire what is new and difficult is one of the first symptoms of the decline of that taste; such is at present the case in Italy with respect

respect to all the arts; but the admiration bestowed in Britain on difficulty and novelty, in preference to beauty and simplicity, is the effect not of the decline, but of the total want of taste, and proceeds from the same principles with the admiration of tumbling and rope-dancing, which the multitude may gaze on with astonishment long before they are susceptible of the charms of graceful and elegant pantomime, these feats of agility having exactly the same relation to fine dancing that the abovementioned airs have to expressive music: they are therefore, I conceive, incompatible with the nature of a serious drama; but in the burletta or comic opera, in which much greater liberties may be taken, I think I have sometimes heard them introduced with success. In a comedy a pretty frolicksome coquette may be supposed to cut an elegant caper, at once to show her legs and to display her skill in dancing; nay, such a stroke might be characteristic, and therefore proper: so a gay fashionable lady might, with a kind of graceful levity, express, by an air of this kind, some of her pretty capricious humours, equally unintelligible with the music itself, the merit of both consisting merely in the prettiness of the *manner*; for this kind of music, though incapable of any expression excepting that perhaps of gaiety in general, may yet have all the beauty which can be given to it by a fine voice running, with ease and velocity, through an arrangement of notes, not in itself unpleasing, just as the humour of the lady, though perhaps rather unmeaning, may be accompanied with many graces of countenance, figure, voice, and motion.

'Now the union of all this with the music produces often, without any violation of propriety, a very happy effect on the stage; but your lordship will observe with what absurd impropriety these airs often make a part of our concerts, where all this elegant flirtation of face and figure is forbidden, and where these fanciful and exuberant sallies are gravely pronounced by a lady standing at the harpsicord with downcast, or at best unmeaning eyes, and without the smallest apparent tendency to motion.'

Every reader of taste will admit the justice of these remarks, and regret that the Italian airs are so often brought into obloquy by such improper application in small parties at private houses.

We have next a concluding chapter, containing much ingenuity of expression and reasoning on the power of music to produce ideas of grandeur, swiftness, and other subjects not immediately connected with sound, as well as what our author calls imitative music; where the orchestra gives some idea of the scene and surrounding objects, even where the words of an air must be sung in a very different manner. Here too we recommend the musical reader to peruse a passage we can neither do justice to, nor abbreviate, nor will our limits allow us to transcribe it.

Though our author is ready to admit himself an unequal judge how far enthusiasm may have warped his judgment, and on that account does not wish to undervalue the good sense of those who have no taste for his favourite compositions; yet he

every where points out with freedom the blameable excesses to which some otherwise beautiful movements are frequently carried. On the whole, we cannot but recommend this little performance as replete with candour, taste, and sound judgment.

ART. VI. *Archæologia; or, Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity. Published by the Society of Antiquaries of London. Vol. VIII.* 4to. 1l. 1s. White. London, 1787.

[*Continued.*]

'XXV. *Account of an ancient Inscription in North-America. By the Rev. Michael Lort, D. D. V. P. A. S.*'

THIS account shews the wonderful influence of imagination in the human mind. In Taunton river, Narraganset bay, New England, are upon a large rock seven or eight lines, seven or eight feet in length, and about a foot in breadth, consisting of seeming characters and some figures. These M. Gebelin of the Academy of Sciences at Paris, considered as *Punick*, and produced them gravely as proofs, of a *Carthaginian* visit to America. A Dr. Stiles of Connecticut, equally considering them as *Punick*, and torturing them into the support of another system in favour of triumphant rebellion, makes them the work of the *Phœnician* fugitives of Canaan, who fled to America, we suppose, from the arms of 'Joshua, the son of 'Nun, the robber.' And Colonel Vallancey, considering them in a different light, and imagining them to be *Tartarean*, esteems them the act of the first and *Tartar* inhabitants of America. On such a wild sea of hypothesis are we tossed in this essay, no one of the hypothesis-mongers pretending all the time to *read* them, though they have them by copies under their eye. Dr. Lort presumes not to offer any hypothesis. 'When I first saw 'it in M. Gebelin's book,' he says, 'I own I could conceive of 'it as nothing more than the rude scrawls of some of the Indian 'tribes, commemorating their engagements, their marches, or 'their hunting parties.' And 'if the different copies and ac-'counts of it,' he adds at the close, 'which I have been able to 'collect, shall enable any person to throw any new light on so 'obscure a subject; I shall think the attention I have paid to 'it, amply recompensed.'

'XXVI. *Observations on the American Inscription. By Colonel 'Charles Vallancey, F. A. S.*'

This essay is to support that opinion of the colonel's, which we have mentioned from Dr. Lort before. From this it appears that some letters passed betwixt the colonel and the late M. Gebelin, on the subject; and that the latter 'at length—'acknowledged his doubts, in short, tacitly gave up the point.' And we now beg leave to give our opinion upon the whole.

From

From the minutes of the Royal Society it appears, that a drawing of this inscription had been sent it in 1680; and in a volume of the Transactions, 1714, the inscription is noted. A letter from the famous Cotton Mather of Boston, describing it, was then inserted in the Memoirs of the Society. In May 1728 the late Bishop Berkeley, that great and good man, went over to Boston. From thence he made an excursion, in order to examine these *written mountains* of America. He went to the rock. He examined the inscription. And, as we well remember to have been told by his ingenious and religious widow, the late Mrs. Berkeley, he returned fully convinced that this reputed scrawl of the present Indians, this boasted inscription of Punick, of Phœnician, or of Tartar hands, *was merely the casual corrosion of the rock by the waves of the sea.* With this opinion, unknown as it appears to have been to Dr. Lort, we cordially concur. All the circumstances unite to prove it. 'At Taunton,' says Cotton Mather, 'by the *side* of a *tiding* river, *part in, part out* of the river, there is a large rock, on the perpendicular side of which, *next to the stream*, are seven or eight lines.' 'I am informed,' adds Dr. Isaac Greenwood, 'that—the river,—since the memory of many now living, is something *more distant* from the rock *than formerly*, though *now* but *a few feet*; and that there are *the like figures* for *some feet* under *the present surface of the beach* *.' This last circumstance, concerning *a part* of the whole inscription being under what is now the beach, at the ebb, and what must formerly have been *always* water; is decisive, we think, for this opinion. No inscription *could* have been formerly written there. Nor can any objection be raised to this argument, from the seemingly human figures on the rock. These are no more human figures than the strokes near them are human characters. This is plain from an inspection of them, in Dr. Greenwood's copy of 1730; neither Dr. Danforth's of 1680, nor Cotton Mather's of 1712, having them at all. Nor *could* human figures, any more than human characters, be inscribed upon rocks that were under water. Yet Dr. Greenwood himself assures us, that 'there are *the like figures* for some feet under the present surface of the beach.' Cotton Mather also confirms this, by saying there—'are *seven or eight* lines,' though 'I have not yet 'been able to procure the whole, but have sent a copy of *two* of 'them.' *Two* only are equally given in all the copies. 'When I 'saw it last, in 1774,' says Mr. Winthrope, Hollisian professor of mathematics at Cambridge in New-England; and he 'went

* P. 293—294.

'to see this rock above thirty years ago;' 'the *tide covered all* 'but the *upper* part of it *.' The rock indeed, as Dr. Greenwood says, 'is certainly in its surface very uniform, compact, 'and durable;' yet we find in fact it is so soft, that 'time is 'supposed to have gradually impaired them, and one of advanced years in the town told me, —he was sensible of some 'alteration since his memory †.' 'According to the best of 'my remembrance,' adds Mr. Winthrope, 'the characters do 'not appear so plain now, as they did about thirty years ago ‡.' What has sensibly faded within the compass of thirty years only, could never be very antient; and what must have been always under the tide at no distant period of time, could then have received no inscription at all upon it.

'XXVII. *Observations on the Barberini Vase. By John Glen 'King, D. D.*'

This beautiful urn, which Montfaucon described as 'of one 'precious stone,' when it is 'evidently glass, or composition, 'of a deep blue or violet colour;' has some 'white' figures upon it, which Montfaucon considered as representing Leda with her swan. But Dr. King thinks the vase to be 'the urn of the 'Empress Mammea;' as it was found in her and her son's tomb at Rome; and the figures to 'represent her death, and the birth 'of her son.' For this idea Dr. King has produced some plausible reasons. And reasons plausible, we apprehend, are all that can be produced upon the point.

'XXVIII. *An Essay on the elegant ornamental Cameos of the 'Barberini Vase. By Charles Marsh, Esq. F. A. S.*'

This, after an introductory letter in English, is written in *Latin*; but, for what reason, we cannot conjecture. Mr. Marsh however agrees with Dr. King, without knowing his opinion, in interpreting the first series of figures to be Mammea, Alexander Severus, and Jupiter; but applies the other group to Heliogabalus, &c. Yet he considers Heliogabalus as satirized for his lusts, by the *naked* representation of him; when even his Alexander Severus, and even his Jupiter, are equally represented so. And he thinks the vase to be 'urna votiva, in honorem 'Alexandri Severi ficta.'

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* Page 296. † P. 295, 294. ‡ P. 296.

'XXIX.

'XXIX. *Some Account of an ancient Painting on Glaſs. By the Rev. Robert Maſters, B.D. F.S.A.' &c.*

This is 'an antient piece of glaſs, on which is depicted a memorable piece of hiſtory of the Stewart family; and was diſcovered by me in Cambridgeſhire, and obtained from a deſcendant of that houſe, who ſaid it came from an ancient ſeat of the family at Stuntney in that county, which was pulled down about the beginning of the preſent century. The ſtory alludes to an event, which poſſibly took place in the Stewart family ſome years ago, and which has before been treated on in the fourth volume of the Archæologia.'

'XXX. *Explanation of the Inſcriptions on a Roman Altar and Tablet found at Tinmouth Caſtle, in Northumberland, A.D. 1783. By the Rev. Mr. Brand, Secretary.*'

The altar was found 'at the depth of ſix feet in the earth, where it had been laid as a foundation-ſtone, probably of the antient Chriſtian church, which is *ſaid* to have been erected there ſoon after the introduction of that faith into Britain:' ſo ſaid *traditionally* perhaps, but not *hiſtorically*. The tablet 'was found alſo in the ſame place.' The inſcription upon the latter, is ſingularly ſtriking; that Maximinus, agreeably to his vow, conſtructed 'Gyrum,' an artificial harbour, 'lumbas' for 'lymbas,' boats to ſhelter in it, and 'templum' a temple for the owners of the boats.

'XXXI. *An Account of the obſolete Office of Purveyor to the King's Houſehold. By William Bray, Eſq. F.S.A.*'

This is a curious and pleaſing hiſtory of the office, deduced to its abolition in the laſt century. But our limits will not allow us to give either an abſtract of it, or extracts from it.

'XXXII. *An Account of the Remains of two Roman Villæ, diſcovered near Mansfield Woodhouſe — 1786. By Hayman Rooke, Eſq. F.S.A.*'

In this pleaſing account, we are introduced into the inſide of a Roman gentleman's houſe. It was diſcovered in conſequence of 'ſome ſmall ſtone cubes about an inch ſquare, which the country people called *fairy pavements*,' being 'ſaid to be found in the—fields.' This induced Mr. Rooke to examine the ground. 'In removing the earth, which was near a foot deep to the floor, it was perceptible [that] the walls of moſt of the

'rooms,' which were seven in number, 'had been *stuccoed* and 'painted; many fragments being found in different places on 'the floors, which must have fallen from the upper parts of the 'walls: the remaining lower part had the *painted stucco* perfect 'in many places. The composition was near two inches thick, 'made chiefly of lime and sand; on this was laid a very thin 'body of stucco, *painted* in *stripes* of *purple*, *red*, *yellow*, *green*, 'and *various* colours,' more gaudy than elegant surely! They found 'in the centre room, (20 feet 5 inches by 19),—part of 'a very elegant Mosaic pavement.' This appears truly elegant, in one of the five plates annexed. 'As there is no appearance 'of a fire-place or marks of fire, this is likely to have been the 'summer apartment.' But, in a house of only seven rooms on a floor, there could have been no apartments appropriated to summer. And the fire-place is probably *below* the floor. 'There 'being a greater space between the Mosaic pavement and the 'wall, on the *west* side than on the *east*; it is not improbable, 'but it was intended for the three beds or couches, and that 'this was the triclinium or dining-room,' and consequently an apartment for winter as well as summer. In five of the other rooms, 'the walls were painted, but [the rooms] had not 'tessellated pavements; the floors were stucco, which appeared 'to be made of lime, brick pounded, and clay. Ashes, and 'other appearances of there having been fires, were visible to-'wards the centre of these rooms.' The floors *here*, being calculated to bear fires *upon* them, had them; while *there* the fire was *below* the floor. 'The entrance of this villa seems to 'have been on the east front, into a narrow porticus—, about 'fifty-four feet in length and eight wide,—with painted walls 'and a tessellated pavement. At one end—is a small room, six-'teen feet eight inches by twelve. At the other is a hypocaust,' to this porticus; which shews the centre apartment, as equally having a tessellated pavement, to have equally had an hypocaust. 'Joining the hypocaust is a small room, eleven feet by nine, 'which might have been a cold bath; but no pipe, nor any 'passage for conveying the water out, could be seen.' It was merely a room of communication, between the next room, which is evidently one thrown off from the house, and that porticus, which appears to have formed a gallery of communication to all the other rooms. 'From this' falsely supposed cold-bath, 'there is a *door-way* into a large room, twenty-four feet square. 'The floor, which was stucco, had the marks of fire in two or 'three places,' and from 'the top of a lamp, and a small piece 'of a cullender,' found there, 'we may suppose this to have 'been the kitchen.' The *detached* nature of the building, too, points it out for the kitchen. 'It is remarkable, that only *two*

'doorways

'doorways appear from these rooms; therefore there must have 'been *steps* from one room to the other,' just as in the older houses of our own country; 'the *floors* being one foot *below* the 'present height of the walls.' Such *was* the house of a Roman or Roman-British gentleman! 'I must not omit a *small* 'building—, about *fourteen* feet *from* the north-west *end* of this 'villa, the walls irregular, one side being twelve feet, the others 'eight and ten; *in one end* is a *hollow*, four feet *deep*, and 'seven in *length*; the floor adjoining was paved with flat stones, 'nothing found under them: from whence it may be supposed 'to have been a *necessary* convenience.' We agree entirely with Mr. Rooke in this. The hollow is for a long seat with perforation over it. And we are glad to find the owner of this house, whether Roman or Roman-British, to have been so much more attentive to the delicacies of life, than even the Spaniards *were* within our own days. The Welsh had this attention, so early as the days of Howel Dha; and called the building *Ty Bach*, or the small room. They derived it, no doubt, from the Romans. But this of Mr. Rooke's, we believe, is the only Roman Little-House known to be in Europe.

Let us now enter what Mr. Rooke thinks the *farm-house*, belonging to this villa. It is 'only ten yards from the north-east 'end' of the other. 'Two side-walls extend one hundred and 'forty-two feet; the inclosed space is divided into rooms *at* 'the *east and west ends*, with *a court in the centre*,' like all our old mansion-houses. 'The three rooms in the *west* front— 'have no painted walls, nor are there any tessellated pavements; 'the floors are all *stuccoed*,' an argument, that this was no farm-house. 'The largest' room, 'being eighteen feet by se- 'venteen, had *painted walls*, with a *very smooth* stucco floor;' a decisive evidence, that the whole was another gentleman's house. 'The next room—on the south-side, had likewise '*painted walls*,' another decisive evidence! 'the rest in this 'front had none, though the walls seem to have been *drawn*. 'In the *east* end are two rooms, two *hypocausts* with their fire- 'places,' another decisive proof! 'a *bath*, and cellars. The '*centre* room had *very elegant* painted walls, *the colours remarkably* '*bright*;' a closing proof!

Let us add to this account, that the former villa 'is upon 'the estate of John Knight, Esq. of Langold, who has oblig- 'ingly expressed his intentions, of erecting a building over the 'tessellated pavements, for the inspection of the curious;' that the latter is also 'on the estate of my worthy friend Mr. Mom- 'pesson, who is equally desirous of preserving these curious re- 'mains of Roman antiquity;' and that 'the rooms with 'tessellated pavements are now filled up with earth, the only 'means of preserving them till the buildings can be erected.'

'XXXIII.

'XXXIII. *Account of some Roman Pottery, found at Sandy in Bedfordshire, and at Lincoln, together with a Roman Speculum. By Governor Pownall.*'

'Pottery of this very *fabrique*,' says the governor in his affectedly Frenchified language, 'with exactly similar mouldings and ornaments, is at this day found in Provence and Languedoc, particularly at Aix and Nismes; at Vienne in Dauphine; and in many parts of France; as also in many parts of Switzerland.'—'This *fabrique* was usually called the Samian, mentioned by Pliny, xxxv. 46.'—There is as much difference, betwixt the composition of this *fabrique* and the home-made pottery of ancient Europe, the grey, black, and brick-red pottery found every where; as between the porcelaine of China, and the common *fayance* of Europe.'

In Chester Field at Sandy was dug up, some years ago, an urn containing bones and ashes, &c. 'There was in it a hair-pin of that sort, called the *hasta recurva*. This is now lost. But there still remains a curious mirrour or speculum, which ——, I believe, you will find—to be of a mixt metal, copper, silver, and iron.—It is surprising, that it has preserved its polish to so great a degree, after lying buried so many hundred years.'

'XXXIV. *Description of the Druid Temple lately discovered on the Top of the Hill near St. Hillary in Jersey. Communicated by Mr. Molesworth.*'

'XXXV. *Description of a Druidical Monument in the Island of Jersey; in a Letter from the Right Hon. H. S. Conway, Governor of Jersey.*'

We have here a double account, three views, and one ground-plan, of a monument in Jersey, which the writers of both these essays denominate a Temple. 'The present *temple*,' says the general, 'remained *entirely covered with earth* till the summer 1785; having the appearance *of a large barrow or tumulus*, in which form I had constantly seen it when in the island. It then happened, that the colonel of the St. Helier's militia wanting to level the ground for the exercise of his corps, the workmen soon struck on the stones, and the *temple* thus discovered was afterwards *cleared as it now stands*. There is no trace of the time, when it *was covered up*; not improbably in that of the Romans, by *the Druids themselves*; to *preserve* it, as their *most* sacred *temple*, from the violence of *profanation* of that people, who frequently persecuted them,

' and who certainly had poſſeſſion of the iſland.' But we beg leave to inform this reſpectable officer and ſcholar, that a temple covered up by Britons to *conceal* it from the Romans; profaned by *thoſe*, to *prevent* it being profaned by *theſe*; and profaned by men, *who uſed it as a temple*, to *ſave* it from being profaned by men, who conſidered it only as a rude circle of ſtones; is ſuch a ſolecifm in antiquarian ſpeculation, as refutes itſelf ſufficiently. It is hiſtorically falſe too; as the hundreds of Britiſh temples in our own iſlands, *never covered up* from the eyes and hands of the Romans; and particularly thoſe grand cathedrals of the Druids, the temples of Abury and Stonehenge, boldly looking the Romans in the face, and defying their profaneſt touch; demonſtrate to our very ſenſes. And the fact is, that this imaginary temple is nothing more than a BARROW. Such it appears in the views here given. Such the General had always conſidered it; it ' hav- ' ing', he ſays, ' the appearance of a large barrow or tumulus, ' *in which form* I had *conſtantly ſeen it* when in the iſland.' It only differs from other barrows, in being a *circle* inſtead of a *cromlech* of large ſtones, at the baſe. This forms an ampler chamber for ſepulture within; which is very obſervably divided into cells like thoſe of a Cromlech, for the burying-places of diſtinct perſons; but has one cell directly oppoſite to the entrance, and conſpicuouſly larger than the reſt. All ſhews the barrow to have been conſtructed for ſome conſiderable perſonage, the Sovereign of the iſland probably, and for his family. Theſe were to be ſucceſſively buried here, in their ſeveral cells or *cromlechs*; the earth being accumulated upon each cell, as it was filled. And, what fixes the whole to be a ſepulchre at once, there is a ſecret paſſage to it formed of ſide and covering ſtones, about four feet in height, and narrowing as it approaches the chamber; a road of acceſs, for the interment of ſome more diſtant branches of royalty, in the earth already accumulated within. ' The ſuppoſed entrance in it,' ſays the anonymous author, ' may be called a *ſubterraneous* paſſage, —and meaſures ' fifteen feet in length;—the inſide of the paſſage meaſures five ' feet three inches in breadth, *four feet four inches in height*, and ' the *firſt covering ſtone* three feet in thickneſs.' Thus do we ſweep away an imaginary temple, and ſubſtitute a charnel-houſe in the room of it. Nor was it conſtructed at the firſt reduction of northern Gaul by the Romans. It was the work of a later period, when the Romans had been for a century maſters of the iſland. ' Two medals were found in this temple,' ſays the former eſſayiſt, ' *one of the Emperor Claudius*, and the other ſo ' worn by time as to render it unintelligible.' The outſide of the entrance too is guarded by apparent *cromlechs*; the tomb-ſtones of inferior perſons, attendant on the royal chamber of repoſe.

repoſe. Alſo 'about fifty yards ſouth from the temple, are five 'places *in the form of our graves, maſoned* on every ſide, but 'not paved, and lying eaſt and weſt.' And, as Mr. Fall, in his hiſtory of Jerſey, 'mentions a ſingle *altar* of large dimenſions '*then* ſtanding *on the ſame hill of St. Helier*,' by which in all probability he means merely a *cromlech*, 'and *near* it a *circle* of 'other ſtones, of which there remained *but one* when he wrote, '*the reſt having been broken to make a wall hard by*;' ſo this concurs with all, to prove the preſent building no temple, but a ſepulchre, and a ſepulchre placed adjoining to a temple.

ART. VII. *A Comparative View of the Phlogiſtic and Antiphlogiſtic Theories; with Inductions. To which is annexed an Analyſis of the Human Calculus, with Obſervations on its Origin, &c. By William Higgins, of Pembroke College, Oxford.* 8vo. 6s. boards. Murray. London, 1789.

THE late ſplendid diſcoveries in chemiſtry, while they have enlarged our knowledge of the ſubject, have given birth to two oppoſite ſyſtems. The philoſophers on the continent, at the head of whom is M. Lavoiſier, have produced a theory which furniſhes eaſy, clear, conſiſtent, and elegant explanations of the various phenomena. At the ſame time, they do not propoſe it as abſolutely complete; they introduce alterations or improvements according as the progreſs of diſcovery ſuggeſts. The adherents of the ancient ſyſtem labour hard to ſupport the mouldering fabric. Many important points have been given up, many have been adopted, the theory has been variouſly moulded, and now little ſeems to be retained but the name. Mr. Higgins enters the liſts with the ardour of a youthful champion. His views are ſanguine, his ideas bold and ingenious. He has collected facts that are numerous and important, he has added ſeveral new experiments to the general ſtock, and has contraſted the different merits of the oppoſite ſyſtems with ſucceſs. His aſſertions indeed are often bold, and his arrangement ſometimes obſcure; but the warmth of novelty, and the controverſial nature of the ſubject, form a ſufficient apology.

Mr. Higgins's experiments ſerve to diſprove the concluſion drawn by Dr. Prieſtley from the inflammation of the oxygenous and hydrogenous gaſes. The minute portion of acid is merely adventitious, and water is the real product. Vitriolic acid contains no carbonic gas as its acidifying principle; it conſiſts of oxygenous and ſulphureous acid; for pure alum, heated to ignition, yields theſe products. If iron be diſſolved in concentrated vitriolic acid, it abſorbs the oxygen and renders it volatile. If the

the acid be diluted, the water is decompoſed, and the hydrogenous gas is given out. When ſteam is paſſed over fuſed ſulphur, the oxygen unites with the ſulphur, and forms vitriolic acid, while the hydrogenous gas is extricated. Mr. Higgins thus ſtates the effects of oils upon vitriolic acid:

'Vitriolic acid, poured in ſmall proportion on a large quantity of oil, will turn it to a darkiſh brown colour. This expoſed to heat will yield fixable air and volatile vitriolic acid, with a ſmall quantity of phlogiſticated and heavy inflammable air; and, if the charge be urged with a tolerable ſtrong heat, a ſmall quantity of ſulphur may be produced. Hence we may infer, that the acid is only deprived of a portion of its dephlogiſticated air. Animal and vegetable inflammable bodies have certainly ſtronger affinity to dephlogiſticated air than iron has, though they will not readily unite under any circumſtance below the temperature of ignition. Oils, animal or vegetable, provided they be free from volatile alkali, will not mix or unite with water in a common temperature, but when diffuſed with it by agitation will aſſume a globular figure, and inſtantly ſeparate from it again on ſtanding: here the repulſive force between oil and water is evident. If oil and water be boiled under the common preſſure of the atmoſphere, no decompoſition will take place; but, if water be gradually dropped into boiling hot oil, inflammable air will be produced, as has been firſt obſerved by Mr. Lavoiſier. The joint action of air and water can have no great effect on theſe, and if any at all, it muſt be in a great length of time. Suet and butter are not decompoſed by water alone; for I can affirm that I have been preſent when a ſmall tub of butter had been taken from under ground at leaſt three feet deep, and which, from the ſituation of the ſoil and the decay of the wood, muſt have lain there for upwards of fifty years. It was ſurrounded with water, for it lay in a marſhy ſoil. It had a diſagreeable taſte, and a ſpongy white appearance, but did not ſeem much changed in its chemical properties.'

M. Gengembre ſhewed that hepatic gas was hydrogenous gas in which ſulphur is ſuſpended. Dr. Auſtin has confirmed this theory by ſeveral ingenious experiments. He precipitated the ſulphur by paſſing an electric ſpark repeatedly through hepatic gas. He fuſed ſulphur in hydrogenous gas, azotic gas, and 'heavy 'inflammable air,' or a mixture of hydrogenous and azotic gaſes. The two former were not in the leaſt altered, but the latter afforded $\frac{1}{4}$ its original bulk of hepatic gas. Mr. Higgins combined hepatic gas with the oxygenous, and found the reſiduum was ſulphureous acid.—Mr. Kirwan's theory of nitrous acid is clumſy and complicated. The hypotheſis of the acidifying principle derived from the carbonic gas is inconſiſtent with the experiments of Mr. Higgins and Mr. Cavendiſh. That carbonic gas is compoſed of charcoal and oxygen, and that nitrous acid is formed from oxygenous and azotic gaſes, is confirmed by the following experiment of Mr. Higgins:

'I fuſed

'I fused a quantity of nitre in a small earthen tubulated retort, whose neck was elongated with a glass tube which immerged in water and introduced into it 10,33 gr. of red-hot charcoal, which was exposed to a strong heat for half an hour. It was a whole piece, and the weight was ascertained as soon as it was taken out of the fire. When it got in contact with the fused nitre, a rapid deflagration ensued, attended with a copious extrication of fixable air. When I obtained about 40 cubic inches of air the deflagration ceased, and the charcoal was about $\frac{3}{4}$ consumed. The fixable air was very pure, containing but 7 cubic inches of phlogisticated air. The difficulty of separating the alkali from the refiduary charcoal without waste, and the impossibility of consuming the entire of a quantity of charcoal, as it must be used whole in this experiment, render it impracticable to exactly ascertain the quantity of fixable air a given quantity of charcoal would yield; for, as soon as the nitre next the charcoal is decomposed, the process ceases. In order to obviate this inconveniency as much as possible, I introduced a long and flat piece of charcoal, weighing 10 grains, into a fresh charge of nitre; and, as soon as the deflagration commenced, I kept the charge in continual agitation; which, with the large surface the charcoal itself exposed, enabled me to nearly consume the whole. The quantity of charcoal left could not exceed 2 grains. I obtained 80 cubic inches of air, 67 of which were fixed air, and the remainder phlogisticated air.'

Mr. Higgins introduced some iron filings, recently prepared, into pale nitrous acid largely diluted; the metal robbed the acid of its oxygen, and azotic gas alone was produced. Equal parts of hepatic and nitrous gas, when mixed, contract to $\frac{3}{4}$ of their bulk, and depofit fulphur. Red nitrous acid, expofed to oxygen gas, gradually abforbs it, and becomes colourlefs. The aftonifhing effects of the effufion of oils upon nitrous acid is well known; but even charcoal, if it be very dry, can be inflamed by nitrous acid.

The nature of the marine acid is the leaft known. It is probable, both from experiment and analogy, that it confifts of a certain bafis united to oxygen. But fuch is the volatility of the acid, and fo ftrong its attraction for oxygen, that its bafis has never been feparately exhibited. If common falt and litharge be fufed, the acid unites to the lead without fuffering decompofition. Common falt mixed with clay, and expofed to a fierce heat, is in part alkalifed, but afterwards it becomes neutral by expofure to the air. Mr. Higgins infers the compofition of the marine acid from its calcining the metals, and combats with great fuccefs the opinion of fome phlogiftians that water unites to form calces. Unlike the other acids, the marine becomes more volatile from the excefs of oxygen; and hence the dephlogifticated muriated acid of Scheele. If this oxygenated acid be expofed to the light of the fun, it will yield oxygenous gas; and hence it can

can ſupply oxygen to the metals, and thus calcine them without extricating hydrogenous gas.

Mr. Higgins next proceeds to conſider the calcination of metals by the mere agency of heat and air, and gives a neat abſtract of the various hypotheſes formed upon that ſubject. He then examines ſeveral experiments with regard to the calcination by ſteam, and anſwers the objections that have been made to the decompoſition of water. He next conſiders the ſolution of metals, and their precipitation by each other. He concludes with an analyſis of the human calculus. The labours of Mr. Higgins upon this moſt important ſubject are not more ſucceſsful than thoſe of his predeceſſors.

"Mild mineral alkali may be taken in large doſes, and continued for a length of time with impunity to the moſt delicate conſtitutions, only obſerving a few circumſtances; but this alkali, in a cauſtic ſtate, muſt very often be attended with miſchievous conſequences. Beſides, if we conſider that it muſt enter the maſs of blood before any part can reach the bladder, and the ſmall portion of the doſe taken ſecreted with the urine; and, laſtly, the action of cauſtic alkali upon animal ſubſtances, we ſhall be at a loſs to know on what principle cauſtic alkalies have been recommended in preference to the mild. Soap itſelf might as well be preſcribed at once; for ſoon after cauſtic alkali is taken, it muſt be in a ſaponaceous ſtate. Fixed vegetable alkali ſhould be avoided, and the preference given to the other two alkalies. As it is evident that alkalies have no real action on the ſtone in the bladder, though their efficacy has been experienced in alleviating the diſeaſe when timely adminiſtered, their mode of action is only explicable in the following manner: They either prevent the generation of the ſublimate in the ſyſtem, or elſe keep it in ſolution in the maſs of fluids; and, being in the utmoſt degree of diviſibility, its ultimate particles are capable of paſſing through the moſt minute emunctories, by which it is carried off by other ſecretions as well as by the urinary. Thus the urine, not being ſaturated with this matter, acts as a ſolvent on the ſtone; and, as the moſt ſoluble parts are firſt waſhed away, it in time falls into fragments of irregular ſurfaces, which, by their friction, irritate and inflame the bladder, as has been obſerved by ſeveral practitioners. Allowing that the ſublimate is the cementing ſubſtance in the calculus, and judging from the effects of alkalies upon it, their *modus operandi* in the conſtitution, it remains now to inquire into the origin of the calculus. The immortal Scheele has found this ſublimate in the urine of different perſons, and hence inferred that it was a common ſecretion; but it ſtill remains to be aſcertained whether there be a greater quantity of it procured from the urine of patients who have the misfortune to labour under this diſorder, than in that of thoſe who never felt its pangs. If this latter ſhould not be the caſe, another path lies open for our reſearches, which promiſes moſt ſucceſs. May not a deficiency of volatile alkali in the conſtitution be the cauſe of concretions in the bladder, kidnies, &c. or, which muſt have the ſame effect,

too

too great a proportion of acid, which, uniting with the alkali, may take up that portion which would have kept the ſublimate in ſolution until conveyed out of the ſyſtem by the urinary and other ſecretions; and may not this be the phoſphoric acid? If this latter ſhould be the caſe, an increaſe of microcoſmic ſalt muſt be found in the urine; but if the former, a decreaſe of the volatile alkali, and no increaſe of the neutral ſalt. The ſmall quantity of phoſphoric acid found in the calculus proceeds from the ſolubility of microcoſmic ſalt. Do not volatile alkali and phoſphoric acid conſtitute a great part of the human frame? and is there not a proceſs continually carried on to generate theſe in the ſyſtem? and is not this proceſs liable to be retarded or checked by intemperance, &c. which may vary their quantities and proportions? and may not a due proportion of theſe be neceſſary to a vigorous and ſound conſtitution? If ſo, no wonder that an increaſe or deficiency in either or both of theſe ſhould be productive of ſeveral diſorders.'

Our author is particularly fond of explaining the action of the integrant particles of ſubſtances upon each other, by the aſſiſtance of figures and diagrams. This affords ſcope indeed for the imagination, but it is ſcarcely conſiſtent with the ſober pretenſions of philoſophy. We cannot conclude without heartily wiſhing Mr. Higgins ſucceſs in the career of inveſtigation.

ART. VIII. *Sonnets to Eliza. By her Friend.* 4to. 2s. Murray. London, 1790.

OUR Engliſh writers have ſeldom ſucceeded in the laboured conſtruction of the ſonnet, which, like many other difficulties, is not worth the pains it requires. Inſtead therefore of adhering to the genuine meaſure and intricate rhymes of the original ſonnet, that name has been given by many to any poem on a tender or ſentimental ſubject, without attending to the meaſure in which it is written. It is in this view that we are to conſider the ſonnets now before us; they conſiſt generally of four, five, or ſix ſtanzas of four lines each, of which the ſecond and fourth lines rhyme, the firſt and third do not, and ſeem to be the effuſions of a ſenſible and elegant mind.

As a ſpecimen of the work we ſhall ſelect the two following ſonnets:

'TO ELIZA.

'You aſk me what is love; hear all I know:
It is not Reaſon's, 'tis not Nature's child—
Thus ſpeaks the experience of ſix thouſand years—
Reaſon's too proud, and Nature is too wild.

Yet

Yet barbarous Nature has been known to feel,
And proud Philoſophy has learn'd to reſt,
When pierc'd by Fate's inexorable ſting,
In ſweet dependence on another's breaſt.

When ſenſe and intellect together join,
The harmonious union forms the angel Love;
Reaſon muſt regulate life's mad career,
And teach the headlong paſſions how to move.

The effect depends upon its cauſe; and thus
What's perfect muſt be lov'd: 'tis thus we ſee
The chain divine hold on; and hence
The effect is ſeen in me, the cauſe in thee.'

'On THOMSON.

'TO ELIZA.

'BENEATH the jeſſamine bower, where roſes twine
In Nature's fragrance rich, is Thomſon laid;
He charms with elegance the ſoul of Taſte,
Or lulls the throbbings of the love ſtung maid.

He touch'd the Seaſons with a maſter's hand,
Deſcriptive poetry then gain'd a height
Unknown to man, e'en tho' the Mantuan bard
Through Nature's wild wood took his rural flight.

But chief he lov'd to view the glittering gloom
Where icy Winter chills the poet's wing:
'Midſt ſcenes like theſe his fairy fancy rang'd,
Beyond the richneſs of the budding Spring.

With dignity he trod the mournful ſtage,
Though not like Shakeſpeare's glow'd his tragic fire;
Yet Sympathy muſt own his heart was warm,
And Sigiſmunda's woes can grief inſpire.

But moſt when Britain's freedom is his theme
The poet thunders, and his gen'rous zeal
Abſorbs the poet's in the patriot's fame,
The glowing champion of the public weal.'

The author appears to have endeavoured at compreſſing his thoughts as much as poſſible; from this cauſe he has not always avoided obſcurity. His ſubjects are various and intereſting; and there reigns through the whole that plaintive tone of ſenſibility which is ever pleaſing to the virtuous mind.

ART. IX. *Examination of a Sermon preached at the Cathedral Church of St. Paul, London, before the Right Hon. the Lord-Mayor, the Judges, Aldermen, and Sheriffs, on Sunday, May 25, 1788, being the First Sunday in Trinity Term, by the Rev. Richard Harriſon, Chaplain to his Lordſhip.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnſon. London, 1789.

ON the firſt Sunday in Trinity term Mr. Harriſon took the opportunity of bringing forward the diſputes on this holy myſtery. Had he only given his opinion on the ſubject, without any invectives againſt thoſe who differed from him, but with an earneſt exhortation that they would be open to the truth, no objection could have been made, either to the time or occaſion. For if controverſial ſubjects ever ſhould be introduced, public occaſions, and the preſence of public characters, ſeem, of all others, the beſt calculated for them. But it muſt be confeſſed we too often meet with ſuch harſh epithets, as 'profane, ſcornful unbelievers'—'*impiouſly* daring to aſſert'—'*impious* mortals, who diveſt the great Author and Founder of our faith of his divinity,' &c. Where this language is uſed againſt men who, however miſtaken, ſeem many of them to mean well, religion can never be benefited. Hard names and anathemas may be neceſſary to ſupport popiſh impoſitions; but the Church of England ſhould appeal to reaſon and ſcripture, and exhibit that moderation with the want of which it has ſo often had occaſion to accuſe papacy.

But if Mr. Harriſon's antagoniſt is at all eminent for his modeſty, the perpetual accuſation of a want of common-ſenſe, in a ſermon well received by a reſpectable audience, ſeems not only indecent to the preacher, but his hearers. Unfortunately as long as Chriſtians are divided in this celebrated controverſy, which we muſt expect to be the caſe till the prediction of happier days ſhall be accompliſhed; the ſame dull rotine of argument and invective is the only proſpect we can look to. On one ſide an appeal to ſcripture and an excluſion from all pretenſions to Chriſtianity in ſuch as deny its plain meaning; on the other, logical reaſoning on a ſubject its defenders admit cannot be comprehended by human reaſon; a metaphorical language introduced into holy writ, and the defenders of a ſyſtem ſupported by at leaſt as many learned and honeſt men as the former, accuſed of aſſerting abſurdities, and defending, for the ſake of preferment, contradictions the moſt palpable. Satisfied as we are with the eſtabliſhment as it now is, and wiſhing that diſſenters of every deſcription may for ever experience the moderation they have ſo long been indulged in, we ſhall be ſparing of reviving thoſe animoſities

animoſities which have hitherto been the chief obſtruction to the influence of genuine Chriſtianity; and having acquainted our readers with the deſign of this 'Letter to an Athanaſian Chriſtian,' ſhall refer ſuch as wiſh for further information to the performance itſelf.

ART. X. *An Eſſay to direct and extend the Inquiries of patriotic Travellers; and further Obſervations on the Means of preſerving the Life, Health, and Property, of the unexperienced in their Journies by Land and Sea. Alſo a Series of Queſtions intereſting to Society and Humanity, neceſſary to be propoſed for Solution to Men of all Ranks and Employments, and of all Nations and Governments, compriſing the moſt ſerious Points relative to the Objects of all Travels. To which is annexed a Liſt of Engliſh and Foreign Works intended for the Inſtruction and Benefit of Travellers, and a Catalogue of the moſt intereſting European Travels which have been publiſhed in different Languages from the earlieſt Times down to Sept. 8, 1787. By Count Leopold Berchtold, Knight of the Military Order of St. Stephen of Tuſcany, &c. &c.* 8vo. 2 vols. 12s. London: printed for the Author, and ſold by Robinſons. 1789.

THE nature of this publication is ſufficiently ſet forth in the above ample title. The author, after having, in the firſt part of his work, given very proper general directions for travellers, proceeds to the various ſubjects which he wiſhes to be the object of their inquiries. Theſe we ſhall enumerate, as an inducement to our readers to peruſe the work, and to contribute, as far as they can, to further the benevolent and patriotic views of the writer.

The following are the ſubjects he propoſes for the Inquiries of the traveller: Geographical account of the country, and regiſter of lands, population, ſtate of the peaſantry, agriculture, cattle, woods, mines, manufactures, inland and foreign trade, colonies, fiſheries, conſtruction of merchantmen, laws and adminiſtration of civil and criminal juſtice, police, charitable eſtabliſhments, education; origin, manners, and cuſtoms of the nation; women, religion, and clergy; nobility, government, taxes, and imports; finances, land-forces, navy, conſtruction of men of war, ſovereign, general rules. Count Berchtold has not ſatisfied himſelf with ſaying that ſuch are the ſubjects of inquiry, but has entered minutely into every particular in each, ſo that no one can be at a loſs how to conduct his inveſtigation.

The Count in this work has ſhewn what *might* be done to increaſe the knowledge, and promote the happineſs, of mankind;

but who is to execute his plan? We have no hopes from the yearly emigration of Britiſh travellers; their purſuits are of a different kind; and were they willing to undertake, we are afraid that very few of them indeed would be found able to perform the taſk. Could the different governments in Europe be induced to ſend out travellers capable of realiſing the ideas of the author, and were their reports from time to time made the baſis of laws and regulations for the improvement of the national ſyſtem, the conſequences would be highly ſalutary to ſociety. But nations, like individuals, are too often careleſs of their beſt concerns. For reaſons of this kind we are afraid that the work before us will not be productive of all thoſe advantages which it is certainly calculated to promote.

The ſecond volume contains a catalogue of travels, and of books relative to that ſubject, arranged in ſuch a manner that the reader may at once find the town or country concerning which he wiſhes for information.

Would the ſenſible and laborious author of this publication condenſe his work, we mean, would he give the eſſentials of it in a ſmaller form, we doubt not of its being more univerſally uſeful, becauſe it would then have a better chance of being uſed as a travelling *vade mecum*.

ART. XI. *Philoſophical Tranſactions of the Royal Society of London, Vol. LXXVII. For the Year* 1787. *Part II.* 4to. 8s. 6d. ſewed. Davis. London, 1787.

OF the Firſt Part of this volume we gave an account in our laſt Review; we now proceed to the Second Part, which begins with

Article XXI. An Experiment to determine the Effect of extirpating one Ovarium upon the Number of young produced. By John Hunter, Eſq. F. R. S. In this experiment the ſpayed ſow neither bred ſo long, nor brought ſo many pigs, in an equa number of farrows, as the perfect one. In the firſt eight *litters* the number produced by the former was ſeventy-ſix, and that by the latter eighty-ſeven. The ſpayed animal farrowed no more; but the perfect one, in eight additional farrows, brought ſeventy-ſix pigs. Mr. Hunter thence thinks it probable that the ovaria are from the beginning deſtined to produce a fixed number, beyond which they cannot go, though circumſtances may tend to diminiſh that number; and that the conſtitution has no power of giving to one ovarium the capacity of propagating equal to two. A ſingle experiment may indeed not be deciſive of theſe facts; but the great expence with which every repetition of

of it muſt be attended, is ſufficient to diſcourage the moſt zealous inquirer from proſecuting the ſubject any farther.

Art. XXII. Experiments made to determine the poſitive and relative Quantities of Moiſture abſorbed from the Atmoſphere by various Subſtances, under ſimilar Circumſtances. By Sir Benjamin Thompſon, Knt. F. R. S. The ſubſtances uſed in theſe experiments were ſheep's wool, beaver's fur, the fur of a Ruſſian hare, eider down, ſilk, linen, and cotton wool. It was found that the firſt of theſe abſorbed the greateſt quantity of moiſture, and that the abſorbing power of the others diminiſhed progreſſively in the order in which we have ſtated them. Sir Benjamin Thompſon very juſtly aſcribes to a difference in the abſorbing power of theſe ſeveral ſubſtances the different effects which they produce when worn next the ſkin. One of them feels warm becauſe the moiſture is immediately abſorbed; and another cold and moiſt, from its greater reſiſtance to the admiſſion of the perſpirable fluid. On the ſame principle, rather than its warmth, depends the power of woollen in promoting perſpiration.

Art. XXIII. The Principles and Illuſtration of an advantageous Method of arranging the Differences of Logarithms on Lines graduated for the Purpoſe of Computation. By Mr. William Nicholſon. This paper contains a ſeries of computation, and of deſcriptions illuſtrated by diagrams. The ſcale is a circular one, compounded of Gunter's ſcale of a ſector; an improvement equally ſuited to utility and convenience.

Art. XXIV. Obſervations tending to ſhew that the Wolf, Jackal, and Dog, are all of the ſame Species. By John Hunter, Eſq. F. R. S. Mr. Hunter has collected ſeveral inſtances to prove that the wolf and the dog breed together, and that their progeny is prolific; but the inferences that they are really of the ſame ſpecies, ſeem not to be quite ſatisfactory. The probability only is that they are of a ſimilar kind. The inſtances are taken from confined animals; and with the final cauſe aſſigned, it can be of no weight in the argument, as the copulation of thoſe animals is not likely ever to take place in a ſtate of nature.

Art. XXV. Experiments on the Congelation of the Vitriolic Acid. By James Keir, Eſq. F. R. S. It appears from theſe experiments, that the medium denſity of the acids which did freeze with the cold of melting ſnow was 1780; and that, at the denſities of 1790 and 1770, the acid had been incapable of freezing with that degree of cold. It farther appears, that by applying a more intenſe cold, namely, that produced by a mixture of ſnow, ſalt, and water, the limits of the denſity of the acids capable of congelation were extended to about $\frac{3}{178}$ above or below the point of eaſieſt freezing. There ſeems little reaſon to

doubt that, by greater augmentations of cold, theſe limits may be farther extended; but in what ratio theſe augmentations and extenſions proceed, cannot be determined without many obſervations made in different temperatures.

Art. XXVI. An Account of ſome Experiments on the Production of artificial Cold. By Thomas Beddoes, M. D. The experiments which are the ſubject of this paper had been made by Mr. Walker, apotheoary to the Radcliffe Infirmary. He found that by adding ſucceſſively ſal ammoniac, nitre, and Glauber's ſalts, while they held the water of cryſtalliſation to water, the thermometer ſunk to forty-ſix degrees. When materials, previouſly cooled, were employed, the diminution of heat was more conſiderable; and by adding ſuch materials to cooled diluted ſpirit of wine, the thermometer ſunk to four. Experiments were likewiſe made with ſome other ſubſtances for the ſame purpoſe, and the reſults of them are mentioned.

Art. XXVII. An Account of a Doubler of Electricity; or a Machine by which the leaſt conceiveable Quantity of poſitive or negative Electricity may be continually doubled, till it becomes perceptible by common Electrometers, or viſible in Sparks. By the Rev. Abraham Bennet, A. M. The author of this article ſuggeſts an ingenious method of rendering ſmall quantities of electrical fluid, in the air, perceptible to the ſenſes; and he has added to the method a journal of the electrical ſtate of the air from the 23d of January 1787 to the 2d of March. In general the electricity was poſitive, except in rain; it was then univerſally negative, unleſs the rain had owed its origin to the accumulation of water in miſts; a cauſe very different from that which produces rain in the uſual form. The negative electricity ſeems to be connected with ſoutherly winds, becauſe theſe are connected with rain; for it was found that when rain occurred, with the wind even from the north-weſt and the weſt, the electricity was ſtill negative. We wiſh to ſee theſe obſervations attentively proſecuted.

Art. XXVIII. Some Particulars relative to the Production of Borax. By William Blane, Eſq. This ſaline ſubſtance is brought from Jumlate, a kingdom in the mountains of Thibet. The place where it is produced is deſcribed to be in a ſmall valley, ſurrounded with ſnowy mountains, in which is a lake, about ſix miles in circumference, the water of which, from hot ſprings by which it is ſupplied, is conſtantly hot, ſo much ſo that the hand cannot be held in it for any time. The earth round the lake is full of a ſaline matter, in ſuch plenty that, after falls of rain or ſnow, it concretes in white flakes upon the ſurface, like the natron in Hindoſtan. Upon the banks of this lake, in the winter, when the falls of ſnow begin, the earth is formed into ſmall reſervoirs,

by

by raiſing it into ridges about ſix inches high. When theſe are filled with ſnow, the hot water from the lake is thrown upon it, which, with the water from the melted ſnow, remains in the reſervoir, to be partly abſorbed by the earth, and partly evaporated by the ſun. After this, there is found at the bottom a cake of crude borax, which is taken up and afterwards refined by boiling and cryſtalliſation.

Art. XXIX. A Letter from the Father Prefect of the Miſſion in Thibet, F. Joſeph da Rovato, containing ſome Obſervations relative to Borax. The account in this article agrees with that in the preceding, in deſcribing borax as a natural, not an artificial production; but the Father Prefect tells us that the ſubſtance is procured from rain. It is probable that the hot ſprings mentioned in the former narrative diſſolve the borax in large quantities; and the ſnow may be neceſſary to cool the water, in order that the ſalt may cryſtalliſe; while, in the ſecond account, if by rain-water is underſtood the rain collected in falling from the neighbouring hills, the evaporation by the ſun is ſufficient to exhale the ſuperfluous fluid.

Art. XXX. Sur les Gas Hepatiques. Par Monſ. Haſſenfratz. On Hepatic Air. By M. Haſſenfratz. Mr. Kirwan had before given it as his opinion that hepatic air was only ſulphur in an aerial ſtate; but M. Haſſenfratz has been able to hepatiſe many different kinds of air, and maintains that hepatic gas is only ſulphurated air of different kinds. He ſulphurated nitrous air, atmoſpherical mephitis, vital, and atmoſpherical air.

Art. XXXI. Botanical Deſcription of the Benjamin Tree of Sumatra. By Jonas Dryander, M. A. This tree has been often miſtaken by botaniſts. By Ray it was ſuppoſed to be a Virginian plant; while others confounded it with the croton, the mantiſſa, the terminalia, the laurus, &c. It is now aſcertained, however, from a dried ſpecimen, to be a ſpecies of ſtyrax.

Art. XXXII. An Account of an Experiment on Heat. By George Fordyce, M. D. F. R. S. This experiment relates to the communication of heat, but leads to nothing new on the ſubject.

Art. XXXIII. An Account of an Obſervation of the Right Aſcenſion and Declination of Mercury out of the Meridian, near his greateſt Elongation, September 1786. By Mr. John Smeaton, F. R. S.

Art. XXXIV. A remarkable Caſe of numerous Births, with Obſervations. By Maxwell Garthſhore, M.D. F.R.S. and A.S. This caſe is well authenticated, beyond the evidence uſually accompanying ſimilar narratives. The birth conſiſted of five infants, all females. Two of them were born alive, and the whole number within fifty minutes. The mother had before been

delivered of a ſingle child; and the huſband, who had been in an infirm ſtate for ſome years, was, at the time of this incident, dying in a confirmed conſumption. Dr. Garthſhore gives a ſhort account of other numerous births in Great Britain; and ſpecifies the proportion in which they are obſerved to happen in different countries.

Art. XXXV. Chloranthus, a new Genus of Plants, deſcribed by Olof Swartz, M. D. This new genus is a Chineſe plant, neither beautiful nor uſeful, and may be arranged in the forty-eighth natural order, next to the viſcum. The name given it is 'inconſpicuus,' from the ſmallneſs of the flower.

Art. XXXVI. On the Preceſſion of the Equinoxes. By the Rev. Samuel Vince, M. A. F. R. S. The preceſſion is calculated to be 21″ 6‴ in a year; but as in the inquiry the earth is ſuppoſed to be of an uniform denſity, and the proportion of the equatorial and polar diameters to be fixed, the calculation muſt probably deviate a little from the truth.

Art. XXXVII. Abſtract of a Regiſter of the Barometer, Thermometer, and Rain, at Lynden, in Rutland, in 1786. By Thomas Barker, Eſq. Alſo of the Rain at South Lambeth, in Surrey; and at Selbourn and Fyfield, Hampſhire. The variation of the thermometer was from 80½ to 11½, which is greater than commonly happens. The barometer varied from 30.05 inches to 29.01. The rain at Lynden this year was 27.289 inches; at South Lambeth 22.43; at Selbourn 39.57; and at Fyfield 29.60: 29.72 on an average.

Art. XXXVIII. Obſervations on the Structure and Economy of Whales. By John Hunter, Eſq. F. R. S. The ſpecies here examined are the delphinus phocœna, or porpoiſe; the grampus; the delphinus delphis, or bottle-noſed whale; the balæna roſtrata; the balæna myſticetus, or the whale-bone whale; the phyſeter macrocephalus, or the ſpermaceti whale; and the monodon monoceros, or the nar whale. In general, the tail of theſe animals is flattened horizontally, to enable them to riſe, in order to breathe; the fleſh is very red, and of greater ſpecific gravity than beef, ſo that the large quantities of fat are a neceſſary part of economy in theſe various ſpecies. What is called ſpermaceti is found every where in the body in ſmall quantity, mixed with the common fat of the animal, bearing a very ſmall proportion to the other fat. In the head it is the reverſe; for there the quantity of ſpermaceti is large when compared to that of the oil, though they are mixed together as in other parts of the body. The following remarks are particularly worthy of being extracted:

'Although this tribe cannot be ſaid to ruminate, yet in the number of ſtomachs they come neareſt to that order; but here I ſuſpect that

that the order of digeſtion is in ſome degree inverted. In both the ruminants and this tribe I think it muſt be allowed that the firſt ſtomach is a reſervoir. In the ruminants the preciſe uſe of the ſecond and third ſtomachs is perhaps not known; but digeſtion is certainly carried on in the fourth; while in this tribe, I imagine, digeſtion is performed in the ſecond, and the uſe of the third and fourth is not exactly aſcertained.

'The cæcum and colon do not aſſiſt in pointing out the nature of the food and mode of digeſtion in this tribe. The porpoiſe, which has teeth, and four cavities to the ſtomach, has no cæcum, ſimilar to ſome land animals, as the bear, badger, racoon, ferret, polecat, &c. neither has the bottle-noſe a cæcum, which has only two ſmall teeth in the lower jaw; and the piked whale, which has no teeth, has a cæcum, almoſt exactly like the lion, which has teeth, and a very different kind of ſtomach.

'The food of the whole of this tribe, I believe, is fiſh; probably each may have a particular kind, of which it is fondeſt, yet does not refuſe a variety. In the ſtomach of the large bottle-noſe I found the beaks of ſome hundreds of cuttle-fiſh. In the grampus I found the tail of a porpoiſe; ſo that they eat their own genus. In the ſtomach of the piked whale I found the bones of different fiſh, but particularly thoſe of the dog-fiſh.'

The organ of ſmell in theſe animals is out of the direct road of the current of air in inſpiration, and out of the current of water when they diſcharge it by ſpouting. As the fiſh have olfactory nerves, they doubtleſs are endowed with the power of ſmelling; but through what medium this faculty is exerciſed it is difficult to determine. Mr. Hunter ſuſpects that the ſinus, on which the olfactory nerves are diſperſed, contains air, and, as the water paſſes by it in the act of ſpouting, the reſervoir of air is impregnated by its effluvia. This anatomical examination of whales reflects great honour on Mr. Hunter's abilities as a naturaliſt; but we wiſh that he had attended a little more to the propriety of the language in which ſo much curious and philoſophical obſervation is contained.

Art. XXXIX. Some Obſervations on ancient Inks, with the Propoſal of a new Method for recovering the Legibility of decayed Writings. By Charles Blagden, M. D. Sec. R. S. and F. A. S. The ancient inks appear, on examination, to have been made on the ſame principle as the modern. The method found moſt effectual for reſtoring them was to moiſten the paper with a diluted mineral acid, and afterwards to add a phlogiſticated alkali, which gave the letters a bright blue colour. This method, however, ſeems to require that the form of the letters ſhould be previouſly known; and therefore it cannot be employed to render conſpicuous the letters of manuſcripts become illegible. If the aſtringent principle of galls cannot be ſeparated from

from the ſtaining matter, it might be adviſeable to prepare the phlogiſticated alkali from the Pruſſian blue, when it is very ſlightly coloured, and expoſe the writing afterwards to the vitriolic acid, in the ſtate of air.

In an appendix to this volume we meet with a ſupplement to Major-General Roy's mode of determining the relative ſituation of the royal obſervatories of Greenwich and Paris. The ingenious author detects ſome inaccuracies in the calculation of M. Bouguer, and ſubjoins a ſupplementary table of the degrees of the earth.

ART. XII. *A new, ſuccinct, and candid Examination of Mr. David Levi's Objections againſt Jeſus Chriſt and the Goſpel Hiſtory, in his Letters to Dr. Prieſtley. By Philip David Krauter, D. D.* 8vo. Bath, printed: Dilly, London. 1788.

THE ingenious author of this modeſt and candid little performance admits that the objections ſtarted by Mr. Levi are not only not new, but have been frequently anſwered; yet as the ſubject deſerves conſtant attention, he is in hopes the conſideration of them, *abſtracted from particular principles or hypotheſes*, may not be ſuperfluous.

In examining the firſt objection, that, Whether Jeſus was the ſecond perſon of the Trinity, as Chriſtians in general hold, or only a prophet, in either character he could not be received by the Jews conſiſtently with the law of Moſes, our author, carefully avoiding any diſquiſition concerning the Trinity, ſhews that, by ſeveral paſſages of ſcripture, Chriſt being the ſon of God, was not only admiſſable, but plainly prophefied, and this in a manner different from all other created beings. From this ſuperiority of his nature, it could hardly be neceſſary that, like other prophets from Moſes to Malachi, he ſhould profeſs, as they had done, to propheſy in the name of God [as, The Lord ſpake unto Moſes, &c.]. 'What Jeſus foretold was not as one 'who had it *only* from hearſay, though what he had heard OF HIS 'FATHER he made known to his friends, John xv. 15, but as 'one before whoſe eyes the future things were like the preſent, 'and in whoſe hands and diſpoſal they were.' Page 7.

Mr. Levi's next objection is too trifling, in our opinion, to deſerve all our author has ſaid upon it:

'If we compare Jeſus,' ſays Mr. Levy, 'with the reſt of the prophets who ſucceeded Moſes, from Joſhua to Malachi, we ſhall find ſuch a manifeſt contradiction between him and them, as fully demonſtrates that both parties could not be the meſſengers of God, as God never contradicts himſelf.

'Jeſus

'Jesus acted in direct contradiction to the law of Moses; for, whereas the law of Moses expressly commands the adulterer and adulteress to be put to death, Levit. xx. 30; now Jesus, in defiance of this express command, rescues the adulteress from the just punishment due to her crime, John viii. 3, 4, 5; and that by one of the most extraordinary devices that ever entered into the mind of man; for if none were to be admitted as evidence in a court of justice against criminals but the immaculate, villainy would soon stalk triumphant, and carry all before her with impunity.'

As Jesus never acted as an earthly lawgiver, he could not be said to acquit the woman; but not being acquainted with the fact, he could not condemn or accuse her. On this, as on all other occasions, he seized the opportunity of reminding the world of their faults, and of the necessity of attending to their own conduct. The event he could not be answerable for; but the manner of conducting the inquiry was characteristic of a mind ever intent on doing good.

As little need be said of any contradiction between Christ and the preceding prophets when the former ordered the sick man whom he had healed on the sabbath to take up his bed and walk.

The third objection is to the abrogation of the ceremonial law, which Mr. Levi conceives would imply that God had contradicted himself.—To this Dr. Krauter's answer is, that, in a variety of instances, God saw one dispensation necessary at one time, and a different one at another; and though he enjoined his people by Moses not to add or diminish from the law; it did not follow that God himself should not do it whenever in his wisdom he thought proper. But for a further discussion of this question we must refer our readers to the work itself.

Mr. Levi's next objection is to the miracles of Jesus, which he says he has observed are scarcely just or rational. He however selects only those of the herd of swine and fig-tree. One should hardly have expected an objection to the first to come from this quarter. So much, indeed, has been said to remove the scruples of Christians on the subject, that we shall add nothing here, but refer the reader to the book before us, and all the other writers who have given their opinion of our Saviour's miracles, and of demoniacal possession.

On the subject of the fig-tree Dr. Krauter offers some new and ingenious thoughts; but as most of them rest on the idea of Christ's being the messiah, they will be less satisfactory to the Jews than the Christians.

Mr. Levi's objection to the apparently contradictory accounts of our Saviour's genealogy, are answered in a very satisfactory manner, by referring St. Matthew's account to Joseph and St. Luke's

Luke's to Mary. Though this is well known to moſt Chriſtians, it became our author's duty to ſtate it circumſtantially to Mr. Levy; and he has ſtrengthened it with many ingenious obſervations.

Mr. Levi's laſt objection is to our Saviour's accuſation againſt the Jews, that they had neither heard his Father's voice at any time. The implication is pretty obvious that the Jews had not paid the attention to it that would have taught them our Saviour's true character. The whole paſſage is, however, ingeniouſly illuſtrated by Dr. Krauter; and we wiſh we could add, in a manner ſatisfactory to Mr. Levi.

ART. XIII. *Supplement to the Examination of Mr. Levi's Objections in his Letters to Dr. Prieſtley. Occaſioned by his groſs Miſrepreſentation of it in his Anſwer to Dr. Prieſtley's Letters. Part II. By Philip David Krauter, D. D.* 8vo. 6d.

IT is much to be lamented that a correſpondence begun with the beſt intentions, and which promiſed the fair diſcuſſion of the moſt important truths, ſhould ſo ſoon degenerate into flippancy and abuſe. In Mr. Levi's firſt anſwer were to be diſcovered many improper levities, which we forbore to take notice of, and which Dr. Krauter treated with a very becoming coolneſs. But the ſecond part has been almoſt too much for the Doctor's temper; and we rather wonder, with truth on his ſide, he ſhould find himſelf ſo much hurt at miſrepreſentation, and ſomething bordering on buffoonery. Neither the gravity of the ſubject, nor the tenderneſs with which Mr. Levi had been treated, admitted ſuch a retort. But we ſhall diſmiſs the article with giving Dr. Krauter credit for moderation, compared with his adverſary, and wiſhing he had not ſhewn how much he felt himſelf hurt at what was greatly beneath his notice.

ART. XIV. *An Inquiry into the Small-Pox, medical and political; wherein a ſucceſsful Method of treating that Diſeaſe is propoſed, the Cauſe of Pits explained, and the Method of their Prevention pointed out; with an Appendix, repreſenting the preſent State of Small-Pox. By Robert Walker, M. D. Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons, Edinb.* 8vo. 6s. boards. Murray, London; Creech, Edinburgh. 1790.

[*Continued.*]

IN our laſt Review we gave an account of the firſt eight chapters of this intereſting work, where the ingenious author, after proſecuting a variety of inquiries relative to the nature, cauſes,

cauſes, and effects of variolous contagion, delivered an accurate hiſtory of the ſeveral ſpecies of the diſeaſe. We now proceed to the ninth chapter, which is occupied with the important ſubject of the indications.

The period between the reception of the variolous contagion and the commencement of the eruptive ſymptoms, Dr. Walker had formerly denominated *the ſtage of fermentation.* In this ſtage, therefore, he obſerves that the indication is to prevent, as much as poſſible, too great an aſſimilation of the variolous ferment; for which purpoſe a cooling regimen is recommended as an indiſpenſable object. When the eruptive fever has commenced, our author judiciouſly deſcribes the circumſtances in which bloodletting may be reſpectively either ſalutary or pernicious, in different kinds of the diſeaſe. But bleeding being performed or omitted, according as circumſtances require, the eruptive fever, he obſerves, may be moderated by attending to the following directions:

'If no diarrhœa occurs, the belly, if coſtive, ought firſt to be opened by a laxative clyſter, and a cooling purgative adminiſtered the following day.

'Where the ſkin continues parched and dry, by which all the eruptive ſymptoms are aggravated, a gentle diaphoreſis may be promoted by draughts of thin gruel, acidulated with lemon-juice, ſage-tea, or cold water, according to taſte; nothing contributes more to anſwer this intention than the ſaline draughts, where the acid ſomewhat prevails; theſe are found to be highly refreſhing, and induce a degree of tranquillity over the whole ſyſtem.

'Perhaps there is no one expedient more effectual in moderating the eruptive fever, or more uſeful and ſalutary in every ſtage of the diſeaſe, than the *application of cool air.* The more urgent and ſevere the ſymptoms are, the more does the patient require this ſalutary remedy; and, as has been hinted, he may enjoy the benefit of it, when confined to bed, as well as when he is able to ſit up; it is impoſſible to conceive, where the ventilation is free, how powerful and refreſhing its influence is, and how ſuddenly it is capable of bringing down the pulſe, and of moderating all the ſymptoms.'

The various operations of nature, from the commencement of the ſmall-pox, leave no room to doubt that her chief aim is the expulſion of the morbid particles, which however, inſtead of being expelled only by an eruption, are generally determined to ſome of the outlets of the body; to the ſkin, either by ſenſible or inſenſible perſpiration; to the head and ſalivary glands, to the kidneys, and ſometimes to the inteſtines. Our author enters upon the conſideration of theſe different diſcharges, and ſhews the advantages as well as inconveniencies attending each of them, with the view of aſcertaining which is the moſt ſafe and

eligible for anſwering this indication. He begins with the diſcharge by perſpiration.

Perſpiration in ſome degree, he obſerves, is common to every kind of ſmall-pox, particularly in the period of eruption; commencing generally with the eruptive fever, or ſoon after it. It is inſenſible in the mild kind, copious in the contiguous, and, for the moſt part, moderate in the confluent, eſpecially if diarrhœa occurs. When perſpiration is altogether wanting, the fever and other ſymptoms are more violent, and the crop of ſmall-pox more numerous; an evident proof that it contains a portion of the contagious fluids. Our author obſerves, that if gentle perſpiration does not occur after bleeding, in this early ſtage of the diſeaſe, it affords an unfavourable prognoſis, and, with other circumſtances, points out the neceſſity of more blood being taken away. In this caſe, a few grains of James's powder, according to the age and habit of the patient, or other antimonial preparation, in ſmall naufeating doſes, may be given at proper intervals with good effect. The medicine which Dr. Walker has found to be more certain and effectual than any other, for an adult in this caſe, is the ſaline julep, with the proportion of one-eighth of a grain of emetic tartar to the doſe (two table-ſpoonfuls, or one ounce), given once in two or three hours, according to circumſtances. But however ſalutary this excretion may be, in carrying off a part of the contagious fluids, yet, as it ſeldom continues longer than the complete eruption of the puſtules, our author thinks that little dependence can be placed upon it, for giving any effectual relief to the patient, by diſcharging ſuch an accumulated load of contagious matters as are generated in the ſyſtem.

Dr. Walker next conſiders the ſalivary diſcharge, which occurs in all bad caſes of ſmall-pox, and is generally, though not always, connected with ſwelling of the head, face, and fauces. By medical writers the ptyaliſm is uſually regarded as a favourable ſymptom; Sydenham conſiders it even a neceſſary diſcharge, which ought to be promoted and kept up. Dr. Walker, however, is firmly perſuaded that it is merely the effect of an extenſive aſſimilation; and that the exceſs of the contagious fluids may be more advantageouſly reduced by diverting them into another channel. For the ptyaliſm being commonly accompanied, as before obſerved, with tumefaction of the head, face, and fauces, there enſues not only an increaſe of cephallagia and delirium, but an almoſt inſuperable impediment to the ſwallowing of drink, and even a danger of ſuffocation.

Our author obſerves that the continuance of fever, after the complete eruption of the puſtules, plainly ſhews the preſence of the irritating cauſe in the ſyſtem; but if, in the commencement

of the diſeaſe, a reduction of the proximate cauſe can be obtained by diminiſhing the exceſs of the contagious fluids, the fever will be moderated, and of courſe the impetus upon the veſſels of the head will be conſiderably weakened, the ſalivation will proceed more equably and moderately, and the morbid ſaliva continue in a fluid ſtate. On the contrary, if the quantity of contagious fluids is not reduced, the fever goes on even after the eruption is completed, with very little abatement, and the faucial glands being incapable of ſecreting the ſaliva in proportion to the quantity of fluids hurried on to theſe organs, a very ſlow circulation, or a total ſtagnation, muſt neceſſarily follow, by which they are thickened, and rendered more unfit for ſecretion. Dr. Walker therefore concludes that, though ptyaliſm is a reſource of nature to free herſelf from an exceſs of contagious fluids, and though this ſecretion evidently tends to diminiſh ſome part of them, yet the manifeſt danger that attends it in every bad caſe of ſmall-pox, does more than counterbalance any advantage that can be acquired by ſuppoſing it.

While our author maintains, however, that ptyaliſm, conſidering the inconveniencies and danger which attend it, is not the moſt eligible way of diſcharging the contagious fluids, he means not to recommend any undue reſiſtance to that evacuation, where it has already commenced. On the contrary, he ſpecifies the means of promoting it in caſes of particular exigency.

The effects of the urinary diſcharge come next under our author's conſideration. He obſerves that, in every caſe of extenſive aſſimilation, or where the vital fluid is ſtrongly impregnated with contagious matters, the different fluids ſecreted from it, will more or leſs partake of its peculiar quality. On which account it is of importance to promote the urinary diſcharge through the whole progreſs of the ſmall-pox, but eſpecially in its firſt ſtages; though we cannot, in the opinion of our author, expect from it any conſiderable reduction of the proximate cauſe.

The remaining evacuation, the effects of which our author examines, is that of diarrhœa; which, as it forms the baſis of the doctrine inculcated throughout the work, he appears particularly ſolicitous to eſtabliſh upon the firmeſt foundation. In general, the various teſtimonies which he adduces from writers on this ſubject, tend to ſhew that phyſicians have proceeded with great caution in the uſe of purgatives in the ſmall-pox; while ſome have even entertained the opinion, that, in this diſeaſe, any recourſe to them was accompanied with danger. This caution of ſome, and timidity of others, our author aſcribes to their not having a diſtinct view of the proximate cauſe of the diſtemper; and he remarks that the ſucceſsful examples which occur

occur in authors, of ſuch treatment, though not founded on any juſt principle, are ſufficient to fortify the mind againſt the dread of purging in the worſt caſes of ſmall-pox.

In the tenth chapter our author proceeds to the treatment of inflammatory ſmall-pox, under which head are comprehended both the contiguous and ſimple confluent kinds of the diſeaſe. But before he enters upon this part of his ſubject, he premiſes a ſhort account of the reaſons which induced him to adopt the method of cure ſo ſtrongly recommended in the preſent work. He had found that in treating the various kinds of bad ſmall-pox, with all the advantages of the cool regimen, beſides evacuation, by bleeding, and a laxative clyſter from time to time, he never was ſenſible, by the ſtricteſt attention to this regimen, of the crop of ſmall-pox being leſſened; for the puſtules were often as numerous as the ſkin would admit of, with little or no remiſſion of the eruptive fever. After many diſappointments, obſervation at laſt taught him what was farther neceſſary to render more complete the ſucceſs of the cool regimen in this diſeaſe. In every caſe of ſmall-pox, where the diarrhœa was conſiderable, eſpecially if it appeared early, he obſerved not only the puſtules to be leſs numerous, but the fever and other ſymptoms more moderate, particularly the ſwelling of the head. This led him, in all caſes where the ſymptoms indicated an extenſive aſſimilation, and an highly inflammatory diſeaſe, to ſubſtitute early purging where no diarrhœa occurred. By this means the eruptive ſymptoms were moderated, and the determination of the contagious fluids, both to the head and ſurface, greatly reſtrained. The good effects of the purging courſe, he tells us, frequently did not appear ſo obvious at firſt, in many bad caſes, where the eruptive ſymptoms were violent; but ſooner or later its efficacy became manifeſt, and he was fully convinced that the early uſe of purgatives, in the worſt caſes of the diſeaſe, by accidental infection, was much more pertinent than in the benign kinds of ſmall-pox: in the former, its good effects were ſooner or later viſible; in the latter, often hurtful.

Dr. Walker having thus aſcertained, from his own experience, the advantage of early purging, proceeds to anſwer ſome objections which may be made to this method of cure. His reaſoning, through the whole, is acute and ingenious, tending ſtrongly to confirm the theory, already exhibited, of the diſeaſe. But the juſtneſs of it derives a much more ſatisfactory confirmation from the various caſes and practical remarks with which he ſupports it in delineating the treatment of the putrid and cryſtalline kinds of ſmall-pox, which he proſecutes at conſiderable length, and with much judicious obſervation.

The

The subsequent chapter is allotted to the treatment of particular symptoms, viz. swelling of the head, face, and fauces; cephalalgia, delirium, coma, phrenitis, angina, dyspnœa, pain in the region of the stomach, lumbago, swelling of the hands, suppression of urine, and convulsive fits. The treatment of these various symptoms is intelligently and usefully detailed; and, in general, besides other means of cure, an attention to early purging is mentioned as highly advantageous.

In our next number we propose to conclude what farther we have to observe on the work before us.

ART. XV. *Chaubert; or, The Misanthrope: a Tragic Drama.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell. London, 1789.

THE modest author of this maiden production pleads very hard for mercy, and acknowledges his piece is unfit for representation, which he imputes to the nature of the fable; complains much of the difficulty he found in compressing scenes of so great a length of time, even into the state in which they now appear; and after observing that neither the unities of time or place are observed, tells us that the deficiency in incident and effect *arising* from the constitution of the story, prevents the thoughts of its ever passing beyond the limits of the closet.

We would wish this young gentleman to recollect that he is as much an offender for choosing a fable he could make so little of, as he would have been for ill-managing a good one.

——Cui lecta potenter erit res
Nec facundia deserit hunc nec lucidus ordo.

But our author has more to plead:

'There remains somewhat to be offered in extenuation of the many faults that will here be conspicuous; it is a first and a juvenile production; it was composed under many and unavoidable disadvantages—only during the interval of necessary duties, and for the short space of an hour at a time; interrupted by continued circumstances, and confused by numberless distractions; amidst the chat of females, the noise of children, and the thrummings of a harpsichord.'

As we are unacquainted with these chatting females and noisy children, we cannot be expected to call them to account for so frequently interrupting their poet's best thoughts. We are glad, however, to find by the necessary duties hinted at, that he has some other profession besides writing, or he might be too frequently interrupted by still more unpleasant intruders.

After these *friendly* hints to the author, we shall introduce our readers to the work, which, in many parts, discovers marks of

genius, a lively imagination, and some talent at embellishment. The following description Chaubert gives of his mistress is animated and pleasing enough:

> 'O! shall I paint to thee her peerless charms,
> And picture out the beauties that adorn her?
> Say, hast thou seen the rising orb of night
> Hanging in soften'd, moving majesty,
> Just o'er th' horizon; and, with looks askaunce,
> O'er the high hill diffuse a tender light?
> So hang, reclining in their fluid spheres,
> Her melting eyes, that beam with purest lustre;
> Whilst round her lovely face, in tresses sweet,
> The flowing locks (where many a wanton love
> Sits sporting) fair beskirt the heav'nly scene;
> Like, as at summer's eve, the auburn clouds
> Fringe round the dropping curtain of the sky.
> Her lips are like the early-blooming rose,
> Enrich'd with all the perfume of the East,
> Blushing in beauty, and without a thorn.'

Nor is the conversation between Valois and his patron destitute of point:

> '*Valois.* Yes—as a friend, the warmest, truest friend,
> I give thee joy; as one that owes thee all,
> Bound by each tie of gratitude and love.
> '*Chaubert.* Hence with the thought—Valois, thou ow'st me nothing;
> And let me tell thee (but I know thee well)
> This subject is not right; for gratitude
> Too much express'd bears hard on wounded pride.
> '*Valois.* What! must I not enjoy the poor reserve
> Of rend'ring thanks for all that I enjoy?
> The sea-beat wretch that, on the cleeted plank,
> 'Scapes the rude surge, and climbs the desart shore;
> There, tho' despoil'd of all, will grateful kneel,
> And thank, for life, his tutelary saint.
> And shall I then be dumb, when life I owe,
> And all its charities and dear enjoyments,
> To thee, my friend, my patron, and preserver?
> '*Chaubert.* Valois, thou ow'st me nothing.—What am I?
> What can I claim, myself a weak dependant,
> By way of debt, from one that is my fellow?
> Is't not enough the pleasing, grateful thought,
> T'ave been the instrument of gracious Heav'n
> In saving thee to bless and serve mankind?
> What though the beating waves impetuous roar'd
> Above our briny heads, as bearing thee,
> I journey'd thro' the deep; that sov'reign pow'r
> That all sustains, was my support, as thine.

'*Valois:*

'*Valois.* Didst thou not save me from the abyss of woe,
Bid wreaths of flowers crown the thorns of fate,
Replenish each deficiency of Nature,
And bless me with delight, and joy, and plenty?
'*Chaubert.* And what is wealth?—And why does Nature spread
The lot of human life so different?
Why give to one a surplus of enjoyment,
But to diffuse it where her scant supply
Has made it wanting; but to wake the flame
Of warm benevolence and social love?
Thus to supply her inequalities,
And be ourselves the means of others blessings?
'*Valois.* Hast thou not taken from the haggard lap
Of poverty, and rescued from his fate
The youthful heir of my afflictions,
That follow'd on so early on my years?
Hast thou not brought him up beneath thy care,
Been his preserver, teacher, father, friend?
'*Chaubert.* And, Valois, hast not thou by far o'erpaid
Each petty service fortune help'd me do thee?
'Tis to thy friendship, and that sympathy
Of souls which joins each action of our lives,
I owe my highest joys.'—

The author observes, wherever he could do it with propriety, he has availed himself of the language and characteristic events of the original*. But, among some others, he wishes to point out as his own 'the relation of the attempt to poison Chaubert 'in the speech of Valois preceding the last.' We shall leave our readers to determine whether this might not have been omitted without injury to the piece:

'*Valois.* (*To Chaubert.*) Thou know'st not half—thank Heav'n when thou know'st,
For Heav'n alone it was preserv'd thy life—
Dost thou not well remember on the morn,
The fatal morn that saw and seal'd our crime;
How, as thou lifted'st to thy lips the cup,
Thy fav'rite dog, then jumping on thy knees,
Threw down the draught?—O! 'twas a pois'nous draught
That we'ad prepar'd for thee;—and then thou beat'st
The cur for saving of thy life.'

The eking out the last line by the particle *of*, and the elipsis of we'ad, are large poetical licences for one speech. There are a few grammatical errors we shall not so easily pass over should

* The Diary of Chaubert, published in Mr. Cumberland's Journal.

this juvenile dramatiſt again call for mercy. The following are too glaring not to be taken notice of at preſent:

——— 'For what were life,
A tedious, dull, and frightful pilgrimage
When *undertook* alone.'——

'Chaubert and *him* are leagued in bonds of union.' Candour obliges us to ſuppoſe this laſt an error of the preſs; but it is hardly excuſeable any way.

ART. XVI. *The Fane of the Druids; a Poem. Book the Second. Comprehending an Account of the Origin, Progreſs, and Eſtabliſhment of Society in North-Britain. By the Author of the Firſt Book.* 4to. 2s. Murray. London, 1789.

IN our Review for June 1787 appears our account of the firſt book of this poem. The author continues his labours in the book now before us with equal ſucceſs. Having, in the former publication, given (all that could be given) the moſt *probable* account of the *druidical* tenets and government, he, in the preſent work, relates the fall of that race, and the extinction of their government and power by the irruptions of the Scandinavian tribes. He marks the ſubſequent conſequence of the *bards* in every tranſaction of that early period, traces the formation of *clans*, paints the manners of the predatory ſtate of ſociety, delineates the gradual advancement of civiliſation by the introduction of agriculture, commerce, and the other arts which humaniſe mankind, and, laſtly, completes the picture by deſcribing the dawn of ſcience, and characteriſing ſome of the early Scottiſh poets and hiſtorians.

A pleaſing vein of poetry appears in the following deſcription of the fall of the druids; and the numbers are peculiarly harmonious:

'Long in the wilds of Caledonia's land
The Druid rulers held ſupreme command;
Long o'er a nation ruled with temperate ſway,
And ſaw their happy ſons with joy obey.
Even when the world's great ſovereigns doom'd their fall,
And cruſh'd by ſtern decrees th' imperious Gaul,
Beneath her ſpreading oaks, ſecure from harm,
Thy ſons, Britannia, lived, nor felt alarm:
Her northern race along the peaceful ſhore
Heard but the torrent daſh, and ocean roar.
'Twas paſt. Revolving ages ſwept away
Race after race, ſucceſſive in decay.

A fiercer

A fiercer band appear'd, whoſe hands defaced
The peaceful groves, and laid the nation waſte:
A tribe commiſſion'd by an angry God,
From Scandinavian deſerts ruſh'd abroad;
In ſearch of foreign regions ſpread afar,
A lawleſs crowd, that menaced ſpoil and war.
To Caledonia's coaſt they held their courſe,
An hoſt unmatch'd in number as in force;
There, like ſome mighty river ſwell'd with rain,
Now rag'd the naked Pict or barbarous Dane;
Blood-thirſty crew, to furious battle bred,
That joy'd in ſlaughter, and in heaps of dead!
Nought ſtay'd their hands, in horrid league combined,
Vows, ſhrieks, and ſuppliant prayers, were loſt in wind,
Theſe o'er the ruin of their loſt domain
The Druid people breathed, but breathed in vain.

'Hark, yon loud craſh! the cleaving axe deſcends;
And lo, the monarch of the woodland bends,
From his old manſion caſt! Supine he lies,
In age defaced, the fierce invader's prize;
On his own ground he falls, expoſed and bare;
Shorn is his trunk, his leaves are loſt in air.

'Yet theſe ſo fell, ſo ruthleſs; as they eyed
The Fane in ſilence felt their rage ſubſide;
They raiſed their hands, but trembled at the view,
Grew tame, and wond'ring at themſelves, withdrew.

'Mean time the Druid Prieſts, deſpiſed, o'erthrown,
As ſtrangers roam'd o'er regions once their own;
Deep in the ſolitary vales they ſtray'd,
Or ſlept beneath the mountain's cheerleſs ſhade;
Or ſought, their fate in anguiſh to deplore,
Their ancient ſeats, the ſeats of joy no more.
A few, the reliques of the mighty dead,
Crept from their caverns; weak, oppreſs'd, diſmay'd:
No grove around the ſacred manſion roſe,
No dark brown woods, or bowers of deep repoſe;
No throng with reverence bow'd before the ſhrine,
Nor virgin's fix'd eye ſcann'd the Power divine:
Arm'd with keen faulchions, and reſolved on death,
A barbarous people ruſh'd to war beneath;
War was their trade, and his the firſt reward,
Whoſe ruthleſs heart in battle greatly dared;
Whoſe arm, if carnage ſtain'd the whirling ſpear,
Knew no diſtinction in its mad career,
But ever bent on ſome diſaſtrous end,
Whelm'd in wide havock, brother, father, friend:
Theſe they beheld, then with averted gaze
Sunk in their vales, and dream'd of ancient days.'

The following encomium on *Wallace* is well conceived, and expreſſed with energy:

'O glorious chief! renown'd in every fight,
Thou brave defender of thy country's right!
Alike in virtuous thought and action great,
In all a Roman, but in proſperous fate!
Bold ſon of Liberty, whoſe mighty hand
Burſt, nobly burſt oppreſſion's iron band!
Alone ſuperior to thy fate's decree,
Alone amidſt a conquer'd nation free.'

The author purpoſes to complete his plan in a third book, in which he means to give the progreſs of ſociety in Scotland to the preſent times; to exhibit its preſent flouriſhing ſituation in commerce, arts, literature, &c. and to aſſign the cauſes which have produced ſo happy an effect.

In the notes which accompany this work, much good ſenſe, and conſiderable erudition, are diſplayed. The author does not, however, enter upon the diſputed facts of early Scottiſh hiſtory, as a critical inveſtigation of that matter did not belong to his ſubject, and as the commonly-received opinion fully anſwered his purpoſe.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. XVII. *Voyage de jeune Anacharſis en Grèce, dans le Milieu du Quatrième Siècle avant l'ère Vulgaire.* 8vo, 7 vols.—There is alſo a Quarto Edition.

ART. XVII. *Travels of young Anacharſis into Greece, &c.* 8vo, 7 vols.

[*Concluded.*]

ANACHARSIS having paſſed the moſt valuable years of his life in travelling, chiefly in Greece, had taken care to collect his obſervations of whatever merited attention. He had been perſonally acquainted with Epaminondas, Phocion, Xenophon, Plato, Ariſtotle, Demoſthenes, and other great men of that age, and had aſſociated with many Athenians who had known Sophocles, Euripides, Ariſtophanes, Thucydides, Socrates, Zeuxis, and Parrhaſius. While he was in Greece, the great works of Praxitiles, of Euphranor, and of Pamphilus, made their appearance, and likewiſe the firſt eſſays of Apelles and of Protogenes. On his arrival he had found Philip of Macedon living with Epaminondas, and imbibing his ſpirit; he ſaw him aſcend the throne of Macedonia; he was a ſpectator of the expiring glory of Greece, and of the revolution by which its ſtates were

were ſubverted. As ſoon as the battle of Cheronea had rendered Philip the maſter of the Grecians, Anacharſis returned to Scythia, where he arranged his obſervations, and wrote an account of his travels for the uſe of his friends.

It is in this pleaſing ſhape that the Abbé Barthelemy preſents us with the picture of Greece, drawn from the beſt authorities, and with the ſtricteſt hiſtorical truth. The era he has choſen to bring under the immediate view of his traveller is that in which the ſtates were at the height of their glory, yet at laſt fell under the dominion of Philip; but Anacharſis gives a preceding view of Greece from the remoteſt times to the overthrow of Athens by Lyſander; which, that he might not be interrupted in the narrative of his own travels, he throws into an introductory volume.

Vol. I. Having mentioned the ſavage ſtate of Greece, he divides the introduction into two parts. The firſt part contains the hiſtory of the fabulous, or heroic ages, reflections upon them, and on the intellectual improvement of the Grecians. On the ſubject of religion he ſays, 'This irregular ſyſtem inculcated a 'ſmall number of tenets neceſſary to the peace of men in ſo'ciety; the exiſtence of the gods, the immortality of the ſoul, 'rewards for virtue, puniſhments for vice; it ordained ceremo'nies that might contribute to eſtabliſh theſe truths; feſtivals 'and myſteries: to the ſtateſman it preſented a powerful en'gine, by which he might turn the ignorance and credulity 'of the people to advantage; oracles, with the art of augurers 'and ſoothſayers; in ſhort, it left every one at liberty to in'veſtigate the ancient traditions, and to be continually loading 'the hiſtory and genealogy of the gods with ſome new legend. 'So that the imagination, having the power of creating facts, 'and of altering by ſupernatural pretenſions thoſe that were al'ready known, conſtantly gave a ſpirit of the marvellous to all 'their repreſentations, that ſpirit ſo contemptible in the ſight of 'wiſe men, ſo captivating to infants and infant nations. A tra'veller entertaining his hoſts, a father his children, or a ſinger 'employed to amuſe his ſovereign, formed the plots of their 'ſtories, which were unravelled by the intervention of the gods; 'and the ſyſtem of religion became inſenſibly a ſyſtem of fictions 'and of poetry.'

The Trojan war having had its origin in the heroic ages, fixes the attention of Anacharſis upon Homer, of whom, in concluding the firſt part of the introduction, he draws an exquiſite picture, which he concludes in this manner: 'Let thoſe 'who can reſiſt the beauties of Homer grow dull over his de'fects, for why conceal it? he often repoſes, and ſometimes he 'ſlumbers; but his repoſe is like that of the eagle, who, after

'having continued his flight high in the air, through his wide-'extended empire, deſcends, borne down by fatigue, upon a 'lofty mountain; and his ſlumber reſembles that of Jupiter, 'who, according to Homer himſelf, awakes darting thunder.'

The ſecond diviſion of this volume the author treats under three periods; firſt, the age of Solon, or of legiſlation; ſecond, under the age of Themiſtocles and Ariſtides, that of military achievement; the third is the age of Pericles, which is that of luxury and the arts. After giving a ſketch in the firſt period of Solon's republic, ſurveying (rather rapidly) his laws both civil and criminal, and diſplaying the uſurpation of Piſiſtratus, he makes his reflections on the ſyſtem of Solon, and ſhews the difference of ſituation between him and Lycurgus: 'I ſpeak 'not of the peculiar endowments of the two legiſlators. No-'thing can be more diſtinct than the genius of Lycurgus and 'the talents of Solon, than the vigorous ſpirit of the former, 'and the bias of the latter to mildneſs and circumſpection. 'They had no reſemblance whatever, except in having both 'exerted themſelves, though by different means, for the good 'of their country. Placed in each others ſituation, Solon 'would not have achieved ſuch grand deſigns as Lycurgus. We 'may conjecture that Lycurgus would have outdone Solon.'

In the ſecond period we have the battle of Marathon, the glorious ſtruggle at Thermopylæ, and the battles of Salamis and Platea—theſe are made more intereſting by the maſterly manner in which they are related. Before the conflict at Thermopylæ, the ſituation of that famous defile is thus deſcribed, with references to the map.

'Leaving Phocis to go into Theſſaly, we paſs through the ſmall territory of the Locrians, and arrive at the town of Alpenus, ſituated on the ſea. As it ſtands at the entrance of the defile, it has of late years been fortified. The firſt part of the road is juſt broad enough to ſuffer a waggon to paſs; it then runs along between moraſſes formed by the ſalt water, and rocks almoſt inacceſſible that terminate the chain of mountains known by the name of Octa. Near Alpenus, a little to the left, is a ſtone conſecrated to Hercules Melampygus, whence a bye-path leads to the top of the mountain. Farther on we croſs a ſtream, the waters of which being warm, occaſioned the name of Thermopylæ to be given to this place. Hard by is the town of Anthela, in the plain round which we perceive a ſlight eminence, and a temple of Ceres, where the Amphictyons annually hold one of their aſſemblies. At the end of the plain we find a road, or rather a cauſeway, not more than eight or nine feet broad. This is a remarkable ſpot. The Phocians had formerly raiſed a wall here to ſecure them from the inroads of the Theſſalians.

Having

Having paſſed the river Phœnix, whoſe ſtream is loſt in that of the Aſopus, which flows from a neighbouring valley, we meet another defile, the breadth of which is about eight or nine fathom. The paſſage then widens all the way to Trachinia, which takes its name from the town of Trachin, and is inhabited by the Malians. This country is a ſeries of extenſive plains, watered by the Sperchius and other rivers. To the eaſtward of Trachin now ſtands the town of Heraclea, which was not built in the time of Xerxes. The length of the whole paſſage, from the defile before Alpenus to that beyond the Phœnix, may be about forty-eight ſtadia. The breadth varies almoſt at every ſtep; but all along there are ſteep mountains on one ſide, and the ſea or impaſſable moraſſes on the other: the road is in many places ſwept away by the violence of torrents, or ſpoilt by ſtagnate waters.'

The third period, though alſo marked with war, was an era in which the human underſtanding made a rapid progreſs. About the time of the war in Peloponeſus there aroſe a crowd of men of genius of every kind. Theſe are all introduced, and the volume is concluded with many valuable remarks on the riſe and advancement of the arts, and on the introduction of luxury and licentiouſneſs, authoriſed by Pericles, promoted by Aſpaſia, and rendered charming by Alcibiades.

Vol. II. Anacharſis begins his travels. Having traverſed the dreary deſerts of Scythia he arrives, in company with Timagenes, on the banks of the Tanais, falls down the Palus Meotis, and ſlightly paſſes through the Tauric Cherſoneſe, whence he embarks for Leſbos. Sailing on the coaſts of the Euxine ſea he gives a ſhort but animated deſcription of it, by the means of Cleomedes the commander of the veſſel; by whom he is alſo made acquainted with the principal events that have taken place in Greece from the conqueſt of Athens to the time he commences his travels. Ageſilaus had gained the bloody battle of Coronea; Thebes had begun to make a figure in Greece under the conduct of Epaminondas and Pelopedas; the battle of Leuctra had been fought, Sparta beſieged, and the two Theban heroes arraigned. This is the language of Epaminondas in his defence: 'The law condemns me, I deſerve to die; I only requeſt that this inſcription may be engraved upon my tomb: 'Epaminondas was put to death by the Thebans becauſe he 'forced them at Leuctra to attack and vanquiſh thoſe Lacedemonians whom they had never before dared to face; becauſe 'his victory ſaved his country, and reſtored liberty to Greece; 'becauſe under his command the Thebans beſieged Lacedemon, 'and brought it to the brink of ruin; becauſe he re-eſtabliſhed 'Meſene, and raiſed its bulwarks.'

After

After this account, the veſſel ſails through the Thracian Boſphorus, which is deſcribed. A ſhort extract will ſerve to diſcover the author's taſte in the pictureſque: 'On each ſide, the 'land aſcends in ſemicircles, preſenting moſt delightful and va-'ried landſcapes; the hills gently riſing covered with wood, and 'the fertile valleys, make alternately a ſtriking contraſt to the 'rocks that ſuddenly wind the direction of the channel. On 'the eminences are ſeen monuments of the piety of the people; 'on the banks pleaſant houſes, ſafe harbours, cities and towns 'enriched by commerce, and ſtreams bearing down the tribute 'of their waters. At certain ſeaſons theſe views are enlivened 'by a number of fiſhing-boats, and of veſſels bound to the Euxine 'ſea, or returning with its crops.'

The veſſel touching at Byzantium for proviſions, the city is deſcribed, and alſo the neighbourhood of the Helleſpont. Paſſing by ſeveral Grecian ſettlements he inquires into the preſent ſituation of Greece and her poſſeſſions; and Timagenes, with the aſſiſtance of the captain's maps, ſatisfies him on this ſubject. At the outlet of the Helleſpont, the region of Troy appearing in ſight, the young traveller is ſeized with a fit of enthuſiaſm: 'And 'here the coaſt of Priam's kingdom! We were now at the 'extremity of the Straits; all glowing with the flame of Ho-'mer, I entreated to be put aſhore. I ſprung upon the beach. 'I ſaw Vulcan pour torrents of fire upon the foaming ſurges of 'Scamander, raiſed againſt Achilles. I approached the gates of 'the city, and my heart bled at the tender parting of Hector and 'Andromache. On Ida I ſaw Paris adjudge the prize of beauty 'to the mother of the loves. I ſaw Juno deſcend; her approach 'ſpread ſmiles upon the earth; flowers ſprung wherever ſhe trod; 'ſhe wore the zone of Venus. Never did ſhe more deſerve the 'title of queen of the gods.'

At Mytilene we have a deſcription of Leſbos, and hear of Pittacus, Alceus, and Sapho. Croſſing the Egean ſea the traveller coaſts along the iſland of Eubea, and lands at Aulis, whence he proceeds to Thebes. Here he is ſo engaged with Epaminondas and Philip, that, leaving an account of the Thebans and their city for a future excurſion, he devotes the whole of his preſent viſit to the diſplay of the character of the Theban hero.

He arrives at Athens, and contracts a friendſhip with the nephew of Timagenes, Philotas, a young man of his own age, who ſoon after becomes his conductor. Athens throws him into a kind of intoxication; he no ſooner arrives than he runs to the academy to obtain a ſight of Plato; and afterwards flies to the ſtudy of Euphranor. He then takes a curſory view of the city and of the inhabitants, divided into citizens, denizens, and

ſlaves,

ſlaves. He gives a deſcription of the academy, Plato and his diſciples, and introduces us to ſome of the celebrated perſonages of Athens. He goes to the lyceum, and deſcribes the Gymnaſia and Paleſtræ. Anacharſis having been reading one of the diſcourſes of Iſocrates, with which he is delighted, is very anxious to ſee him, and applies to Apollodorus, who had married the neice of Timagenes, and in whoſe town they were living, to obtain for him that ſatisfaction. Apollodorus being acquainted with the philoſopher, propoſes to viſit him on their return from the lyceum. Proceeding on the way that leads to the academy, they overtake a venerable old man, whom his friend appears glad to ſee, accoſts and aſks him whither he is going. The old man replies in a ſqueaking voice that he was going to dine with Plato. The curioſity of Anacharſis is rouſed to know who this is, which Apollodorus takes a delight in defeiring; but as they walk he leads the old man to lay his character open, and give the outlines of his life. When they part, Anacharſis, made more eager by delay, immediately turns to his friend, and finds the ſtranger to be Iſocrates, whom they were to have viſited on their return from the lyceum.

Soon after his arrival in Athens the death of a lady, a relation of Apollodorus, affords an opportunity of ſeeing all the ceremonies on the occaſion, and the cuſtoms obſerved at funerals. Having made a ſhort excurſion to Corinth, where he ſaw Xenophon, and contracted an intimacy with Timoleon, on his return to Athens he finds the Athenians levying troops, and preparing to join the Lacedemonians, to oppoſe the Thebans and their allies: here we have a minute review of military affairs. At the repreſentation of the Antigone of Sophocles we are introduced into the Athenian theatre. A very circumſtantial deſcription is given of the city of Athens; and after the Theban war is concluded by the battle of Martinea, or rather by the death of Epaminondas, Anacharſis enters into a minute inveſtigation of the Athenian government, the ſenate, magiſtrates, courts of juſtice, the areopagus, criminal proceedings, crimes and puniſhments, the manners and cuſtoms of the people, their prieſts, religion, and the crimes againſt religion. The following paſſage would ſerve nearly as well for Paris or London as for Athens: 'When 'I arrived I took notice of the bills ſtuck up at the doors; '*this houſe to be ſold*; *this houſe to be let*; *this is the houſe of ſuch* '*a perſon*. In the principal ſtreets one is continually juſtled, 'crowded, or run over by a multitude of people, men on horſe-'back, carmen, porters, bellmen, beggars, workmen, and 'others of the populace. One day that I was with Diogenes 'looking at ſome little dogs that had been trained to play tricks, 'one of theſe workmen, carrying a thick beam upon his ſhoulder,

'gave

'gave him a violent blow with it, and cried out, Have a care. 'Have a care! ſaid Diogenes, what! do you mean to ſtrike me 'again? Whoever goes out in the night is liable to be attacked 'and robbed, notwithſtanding the vigilance of the watchmen 'who are taking their rounds.'

The next excurſion is to Phocis, where he is preſent at the Pythian games, viſits the temple of Apollo at Delphos, and conſults the oracle. After an elegant and minute account of theſe, he returns to Athens, where he hears of the death of Ageſilaus; and in a ſhort time Philip accedes to the throne of Macedonia. The remainder of this volume gives an account of the feſtivals of the Athenians, of their houſes, and of their meals. Dinias, one of the richeſt and moſt voluptuous of the citizens, conducts him through his houſe; they enter a large apartment, where Lyſiſtrata his wife was embroidering a gown, but whoſe attention was more engaged by a pair of Sicilian doves, and a little Malteſe dog that was playing round her. 'At 'that moment,' ſays our traveller, 'we heard a voice inquire if 'Lyſiſtrata was at home, and a ſlave inſtantly announced Eu-'charis. This was one of Lyſiſtrata's friends; ſhe ran to meet 'her, embraced her warmly, ſat down by her, and never ceaſed 'praiſing her perſon and her dreſs. How beautiful you are to-'day; how exquiſitely dreſſed! This ſtuff is charming; it be-'comes you wonderfully; what does it coſt?'

Volume III. commences with the Athenian ſyſtem of education, which is minutely handled. The birth of a ſon in the houſe of Apollodorus fixes the attention on this ſubject, and we are made acquainted with all the cuſtoms from the earlieſt ſtage of a lady's pregnancy to the admiſſion of a young man to the full rights of a citizen. The education of their girls is mentioned very conciſely.

Anacharſis obtains a long and learned account of the Grecian muſic from his friend Philotemus, who treats it under two points of view, as a ſcience, and in reſpect to its moral influence. A farther view of the Athenian manners is diſplayed, and ſome of the characters drawn, chiefly from Theophraſtus and Diogenes Laertius. In Euclid's library we have a view of the literature of the Grecians, of the Ionian, Elian, and Pythagorean ſchools; and Callias, the high-prieſt of Ceres, in a diſcourſe developes the opinions of the philoſophers concerning firſt cauſes. Euclid himſelf inſtructs us in their aſtronomy, and the extent of their geographical knowledge. Soon after this Ariſtippus arrives at Athens, and we are made acquainted with the character and doctrines of that philoſopher. After a ſupper at the academy, Plato relates his journies into Sicily, and the diſputes of Dion the Syracuſan with his brother-in-law Dionyſius the tyrant, of Syracuſe.

It

It was now time to reviſit Thebes; but our traveller takes an extenſive round in Beotia before he makes his ſtop at the capital; he aſſures us 'it is very ſafe travelling in Greece; that 'there are inns in all the principal towns, and on the high 'roads; but that the landlords impoſe ſhamefully upon tra-'vellers.' At Tanagra we hear of Corinna, at Arcra of Heſiod, and particular notice is taken of Pindar at Thebes. At Helicon he touches on the origin of the muſes, and at Lebadia gives an account of the temple and cave of Jupiter Trophonius. After deſcribing Thebes, and the manners and character of the Beotians, he paſſes the ſtraits of Thermopylæ into Theſſalia. Anthela, the firſt town in that province, is famous for the meeting of the Amphictyons in the autumn; the aſſemblies are held at Delphos in the ſpring. Anacharſis, with delightful attention, goes through the vale of Tempe; and before he quits Theſſaly is preſent at a bull-fight at Lariſſa, whoſe inhabitants are uncommonly adroit in this exerciſe. 'In the 'neighbourhood of the town,' ſays he, 'ſeveral bulls were let 'looſe to be purſued by an equal number of horſemen, who lanced 'them with a kind of dart. Each horſeman ſingles out a bull, 'keeps up with him, attacks and avoids him by turns, till, hav-'ing exhauſted the ſtrength of the animal, he ſeizes him by the 'horns and throws him upon the ground, without diſmounting 'himſelf. Sometimes he ſprings upon the back of the animal, 'foaming with rage, and in ſpite of the violent joltings he re-'ceives, brings him down before a vaſt crowd of ſpectators 'ſhouting at his triumph.'

Over mount Pindus Anacharſis paſſes into Eperus, where he ſees the rivers Acheron and Cocytus, near Avernus. Dodona with its oracle, and the Leucadian promontory, form intereſting ſcenes in this province, whence he paſſes into Acarnania and Etolia.

Having viſited the northern provinces, our traveller ſpends the winter in Athens, and ſets out in the ſpring for Peloponeſus. At Megara he takes particular notice of the celebrated ſchool of philoſophy founded by Euclid; who having admitted, rather unwillingly, the ſyllogiſtical rules in argument that had been lately invented, his ſucceſſor carried them to a ridiculous pitch; and we are preſented with a pleaſant battle of ſyllogiſms.

A fine account is given of the flouriſhing ſtate of Corinth, then the emporium of Europe and Aſia; and the following extract is a curious inſtance of the degree of luxury and voluptuouſneſs at which this city was arrived: 'The women of Corinth 'are diſtinguiſhed for their beauty, the men for their love of 'wealth and pleaſure. They ruin their conſtitutions by ex-'ceſſes in eating and drinking; and love among them is depraved

'to

'to unbridled ſenſuality. Far from bluſhing at this, they en-
'deavour to juſtify it, by an inſtitution which ſeems to impoſe
'it on them as a duty. Venus is their principal divinity; to
'her they have conſecrated courtezans whoſe office it is to ſo-
'licit her protection: in great calamities, in times of immi-
'nent danger, they aſſiſt at the ſacrifices, and march in proceſſion
'with the reſt of the citizens, ſinging ſolemn hymns. On the
'approach of Xerxes, they were entreated to employ their
'power; and I ſaw a painting in which they were repreſented
'ſupplicating the goddeſs. Some verſes of Simonides, that were
'at the bottom of the picture, aſcribed to them the glory of
'having ſaved the Grecians. So fine a triumph increaſed the
'number of the ſacred dames of this kind. At preſent, all who
'deſire to ſecure ſucceſs in their undertakings, promiſe to make
'an offering to Venus of a certain number of courtezans, whom
'they obtain from different places. They reckon above a thou-
'ſand in this city. They allure the foreign merchants, and in
'a few days ruin a whole crew; whence the proverb, *Non cuivis*
'*homini contingat adire Corinthum.*'

This volume concludes with a journey through the Elean territory, and a moſt engaging account of the Olympic games.

Vol. IV. Before Anacharſis leaves the country of the Elians he viſits Xenophon at Scillonte, and hunts with his ſon Diodorus the hare, ſtag, and wild boar; and they alſo amuſe themſelves with the ſport of decoying quails and partridges. A diſpute between Anacharſis and Diodorus upon the tyranny of the paſſions, in which the latter maintained that love itſelf had not the power of enſlaving us againſt our will, being referred to the deciſion of Xenophon, introduces the ſtory of Panthea and Abradates, in which Araſpes, finding in himſelf two ſouls, one inclined to evil the other to good, gains a decided victory for the latter over the exceſs of love inſpired by the former for the perſon of Panthea.

After deſcribing Meſſenia, he gives the hiſtory of their wars with the Spartans, in the form of elegies: this is in order to avoid the unity of action neceſſary to the epic; and he has the example of ſome of the ancients for this manner, ſuch as Tyrteus, Callinus, and Mimnermus. Though he relates the principal facts with accuracy, he has intermixed ſome fictions, but takes care, however, to warn us of them; the apparition of Ariſtomenes is the chief.

The greater part of this volume is occupied with the country of Laconia, and the affairs of the Spartans, their government, laws, education, manners and cuſtoms, religion, feſtivals, and military duty; which are all very particularly diſcuſſed; and our traveller diſcovers a great partiality for this people. He alſo preſents

preſents us with a ſhort hiſtory of the life of their great legiſlator. Very different, indeed, are the deſcriptions of Sparta from thoſe of Athens; for example: 'The houſes are ſmall, and built 'without art; the ſaw is the only inſtrument made uſe of for the 'doors, and a hatchet for the boards; trunks of trees, with the 'bark ſcarcely peeled off, ſerve for beams. The furniture, 'though neater, partakes of the ſame ſimplicity; it is never 'crowded. The Spartans have every thing they want at hand, 'becauſe they make it a rule to put every thing in its place. 'Thoſe little attentions preſerve among them the love of order 'and of diſcipline.' Leaving Laconia, Anacharſis makes the tour of Arcadia and of Argolis, and returns by Corinth to Athens, where he continues his reſearches.

Plato's republic draws his attention, and is diſcuſſed: he then enters upon the commerce, the taxes, and finances, of the Athenians; and the volume concludes with a renewal of his attendance at Euclid's library, where he hears diſſertations on logic and rhetoric.

Vol. V. Anacharſis now makes the tour of Attica; he gives an account of agriculture and rural affairs, and alſo of the mines of Sunium. Plato being in the neighbourhood accompanies the traveller to the promontory, where there is a ſuperb temple dedicated to Minerva. While they were on the top of the mountain they are overtaken by a dreadful ſtorm, which drives them into the porch of the temple for ſhelter. There ſome queſtions on the operations of Nature puzzle the company, and Plato being applied to, affords an opportunity of introducing his diſcourſe upon the formation of the world.

The expedition of Dion into Sicily, and the commencement of the ſacred war, furniſh a long chapter. Anacharſis ſets out to viſit Egypt and Perſia; and the affairs of Greece, during his abſence, are related in very intereſting letters from ſome of his friends at Athens. The contents of theſe letters are chiefly concerning the enterpriſes of Philip, and the progreſs of his encroachments; accompanied with the conduct of the Athenian orators, particularly Demoſthenes and Eſchines: in one of the letters we have an account of the ſudden death of Plato. On his return from Perſia, hearing that Ariſtotle was ſettled in Mytilene, he viſits him; and we are treated with diſcourſes on the nature of governments. We have next the extraordinary picture of Dionyſius at Corinth, and an account of the exploits of Timoleon. At Athens Anacharſis again purſues his ſtudies in Euclid's library, where he now enters upon phyſics, natural hiſtory, and the notions concerning genii, or the ſpiritual world; an account of which is given by a Pythagorean named Seleſicles, whoſe ſoul, diſengaged from his body, had made excurſions among

among thoſe ſuperior beings. He alſo goes through a courſe of the hiſtorians with Euclid. The life of Socrates, and an account of the Eleuſinian feſtivals and myſteries, cloſe the fifth volume.

Having concluded his inquiries concerning the drama, our philoſopher preſents us, in Vol. VI. with his compilations on this ſubject, and we have the hiſtory of tragedy, comedy, and ſatire, together with the lives of ſome of the principal dramatic poets; an account of the repreſentation and manner of bringing plays on the ſtage; the actors, dreſſes, maſks, ſcenery, contractors; and the eſtabliſhed price of admittance. We have alſo a long diſſertation, chiefly from Ariſtotle's Poetics, on the nature and end of tragedy. After this Anacharſis, in company with ſome of his friends, viſits the coaſts of Aſia and the principal iſlands. At Cos we have an admirable account of Hippocrates; and at Samos a ſhort hiſtory of Polycrates. The inſtitutes of Pythagoras are diſcuſſed in a converſation between Anacharſis and a Samian. The excurſion to Delos, its feſtivities, the ceremonies on the marriage of Theagenes and Iſmena, with the account of the Cyclades, are very intereſting. The following extract is the romantic view from mount Cynthus in the iſland of Delos: 'At length the day, ſo impatiently expected, arrived. Aurora lightly tinging the horizon, marked the ſun's approach as we came to the foot of Cynthus. This mountain is but of a moderate height; it is a maſs of granite, ſparkling with a variety of colours, and particularly the duſky ſhining particles of talk. From the top of the hill are ſeen a ſurpriſing number of iſlands, of various magnitude. They are ſcattered in the boſom of the waters, with the ſame elegant diverſity that the ſtars appear in the firmament. The eye wanders eagerly over them, and endeavours to recover them as they eſcape its view. One while it ſtrays with pleaſure through the windings of the channels that ſeparate them, then ſlowly meaſures the lakes and liquid plains formed within their bounds; for this is not one of thoſe unlimited ſeas where the imagination is no leſs overwhelmed than ſurpriſed at the grandeur of the ſcene; where the ſtrained mind, looking round for a place of reſt, finds every where a vaſt deſert that oppreſſes, an immenſe extent that confounds her. Here the waves are become the habitation of mortals. It is a city ſcattered on the ſurface of the ſea; it is the picture of Egypt when the Nile, ſpreading itſelf over the country, appears to bear upon its waters the hills that ſerve as a retreat to the inhabitants.' At the concluſion of this volume is a diſſertation on happineſs.

In the firſt part of Vol. VII. is a continuation of Grecian literature, their religion, poetry, and ethics. The loſs of the battle of Cheronea is the loſs of liberty to Greece; the battle is related

related very briefly, a deſcription is given of Alexander, and Anacharſis finiſhes his travels, and returns to his own country: 'I returned to Scythia, diveſted of the prejudices that made a 'reſidence in it hateful to me. Received as a citizen by a na- 'tion eſtabliſhed on the banks of the Boryſthenes, I farm a 'ſmall eſtate that formerly belonged to my anceſtor the wiſe 'Anacharſis. I here enjoy the calm of ſolitude; I would add, 'all the delights of friendſhip, if the heart could repair its 'loſſes. In my youth I ſought for happineſs among enlightened 'nations; in a more advanced age I have found peace among a 'people who know nothing beyond the ſimple bounties of 'nature.'

In this manner the narrative concludes; but, to render the hiſtory as complete and uſeful as poſſible, ample and valuable tables are ſubjoined. 1ſt. A chronology of the principal eras in the Grecian hiſtory, from the earlieſt times to the reign of Alexander; 2d. A chronological, and alſo an alphabetical liſt of the names of thoſe who had diſtinguiſhed themſelves in learning and the arts, from the periods near the taking of Troy to the reign of Alexander; there are nine tables employed on the meaſures, weights, and money, of the Grecians, which are reduced as exactly as poſſible to the French ſtandard: an index of the authorities quoted; and a copious general index. References to authorities are thrown at the bottom of the pages, the notes at the end of each volume. The travels are accompanied by a thin quarto volume of maps, plans, and elevations, uſeful to the hiſtory, and well executed.

This is the analyſis of M. Barthelemy's work; a performance at once an honour to the author and his country, and is one of the few books that will go down to poſterity, and afford pleaſure and inſtruction to ſucceeding generations. The learned reader will be delighted to hear his old friends converſe familiarly, and to pay them friendly viſits at their own houſes; while the young ſcholar, enticed into the paths of ſtudy, will emulate Anacharſis, grow fonder of wiſdom, nor reſt ſatisfied till he can converſe with Plato and Xenophon in their own language. The charming poem of Telemachus is a fiction adorning moral and political truths; Anacharſis contains very little fiction, only enough to give action to the ſubject; to moral and political inſtruction it adds hiſtorical facts, and all the real learning of the Grecians. It is not ſo much a ſucceſſion of military achievements as the progreſs of literature and knowledge; the camp yields to the library. Great as was Epaminondas, a few pages detail his heroiſm and his magnanimity; volumes ſuffice not for Euclid.

In so arduous an undertaking it would be no way surprising or unpardonable that errors and blemishes should have crept into it; but these are so few and so trifling, that, like spots in the sun, they are lost in the general refulgence. Why should we censure the agreeable and learned author for the decided partiality he bestows on the Spartans in preference to the Athenians? This is a matter of taste which *non est disputandum*. He who prefers the Tuscan order of architecture to the Corinthian loves solidity better than ornament; the strong unadorned virtue of the Lacedemonians had found its way into the bosom of M. Barthelemy, and has kept its place against all the talents and social qualities of Athens, tending to effeminacy and corruption. His fondness for Lycurgus leads him to shew that the hunting of the Helots was an abuse, and did not spring from that legislator; and that the Cryptia was originally but an exercise of the most hardy nature. Though the author does not attempt to justify the cruelties imputed to the Spartans, he suspects the account of them to be highly exaggerated.

The beauties of this work have prolonged our attention to it; but in concluding we must not omit to notice that the language is in general easy and familiar, often elevated; and that gaiety hath smoothed the ruggedness of learning.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

For MARCH 1790.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. 18. *Alfred; an Historical Tragedy: to which is added a Collection of Miscellaneous Poems, by the same Author.* 8vo. 4s. sewed. Robinsons. London, 1789.

THIS author must be ranked in that very numerous catalogue of modern poets who have failed in attempting tragedy. From his Miscellaneous Poems he deserves, however, a more favourable sentence. The following verses will be thought not destitute of merit.

'The TEAR of SYMPATHY.

'To MARIA [on reading to her Sterne's beautiful Story of that Name.]

'As Sterne's pathetic tale you hear,
Why rudely check the rising sigh?
Why seek to hide the pitying tear,
Whose lustre aids the brilliant eye?

Tears

Tears which lament another's woe,
Unveil the goodness of the heart;
Uncheck'd, unhided, these should flow—
They please beyond the pow'r of art.

Does not yon crimson-tinted rose,
Whose opening blush delights the view,
More splendid colouring disclose
When brightly gemm'd with morning dew?

So shall Maria's beauteous face,
Dress't in more pleasing charms appear,
When aided by the matchless grace
Of Pity's sympathising tear.'

The rest of these poems may be read with pleasure.

ART. 19. *The Botanic Garden, Part II. containing the Loves of the Plants; a Poem. With Philosophical Notes. Volume the Second. Second Edition.* 4to. 12s. boards. Johnson. London, 1790.

It is with much pleasure we announce to our readers a second edition of this elegant performance. The author has made a few additions, which have the same spirit as the original work, and a few alterations, which we consider as improvements.

In the second interlude he has done us the honour to adopt our opinion of the source of pleasure arising from scenical distresses; and though he has incorporated it with his own, he has not failed to give us the credit of it. We wish he had availed himself of our other hint, and produced a little more variety in his third canto, which, notwithstanding a small alteration, still abounds too much with horror, not sufficiently relieved by tenderness, or any other passion. But the plea prefixed in the advertisement is a sufficient excuse for this and every other deficiency that may be found in so truly poetical a performance.

We still wait with no small impatience for the first part, or, Economy of Vegetation.

For our review of the first edition of this poem, see Vol. XIV. p. 1.

ART. 20. *Matilda; an original Poem, in Seven Cantos. Inscribed to the Hon. George Fulk Lyttelton. By Mr. Best.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Stalker. London, 1789.

In this '*original*' poem we have the old story of a frail maiden and a false swain, told without novelty or originality. The author might have dispatched Matilda and her father much more handsomely in one canto than he has done in seven, at least almost any other person could have done it. But, instead of giving them the *coup de grace* in proper time, he compels them to languish on the wheel, and tires by the length and awkwardness of the *execution*.

A few good lines like the following are to be met with; but '*apparent rari nantes in gurgite vasto.*'

'Thus some huge rock, amidst the roaring waves,
The howling tempest, and the whirlwind braves;
On its substantial base unmov'd relies,
Securely stands, nor dreads the angry skies.'

How far Mr. Best might have been indebted to Dryden's Virgil for the hint, we will not determine; we here produce the lines we allude to, and leave the reader to judge for himself:

——'A rock that braves
The raging tempests and the rising waves:
Propp'd on himself he stands.'——

If dull, common-place declamation, without incident, can please, then Matilda will be bought and read; and the author did well in securing his property by entering the publication in Stationers-Hall; but, in the present case, we rather suspect that the precaution was unnecessary.

ART. 21. *Elegy written on the Author's revisiting the Place of his former Residence.* 4to. 1s. Law. London, 1788.

On revisiting his former abode, the remembrance of past pleasures, of a wife and children that are now no more, excited in the mind of the author the train of melancholy ideas which are expressed in the elegy before us. It is the effusion of a feeling heart, though not the production of superior genius. The following short specimen will sufficiently characterise it:

'How oft with transport was my bosom fir'd,
When near this happy seat of peace I drew;
When of the faithless forms of friendship tir'd,
Th' abode of solid pleasures met my view.

How was I pleas'd to see the smoke ascend
In many a rolling volume, light and blue;
How pleas'd to see yon grove's thick branches bend,
And hide my mansion from the public view.

When the last streaks of slow receding light
Above the dusky hills were faintly seen,
When the pale glow-worm shone serenely bright,
And gradual darkness veil'd the rural scene.

When Nature's softness harmonis'd my mind,
How was I charm'd my pleasing home to seek;
How charm'd congratulating love to find,
With sweetness unaffected, soft, and meek.

How pleas'd, amidst the dark tempestuous night,
When in the howling storm returning late,
To see my windows shed the taper's light,
And hear the watch-dog barking at the gate.

Pleas'd to anticipate with fond desire
(Whilst all around was dreary, cold, and wild)
The circling pleasures of the ev'ning fire,
Where friendship met, and love connubial smil'd.'

Here the imagery is well selected, and the simplicity of elegy is not destroyed by the gaudy and unsuitable ornaments with which she is but too often decked by modern rhymers.

ART.

ART. 22. *Poems, by the Rev. Joseph Stirling.* 12mo. 3s. Robinsons. London, 1789.

We noticed the Dublin edition of these poems in our Review for October 1787, and now can only mention it as a republication; for the author, though he seems to say that some additional poems appear, has not pointed them out to the reader, and we have not the Dublin copy at hand. The preface, however, is new; and, as it is addressed to us, perhaps this irritable bard would take it amiss should we pass it over in silence. We had said that he bestowed '*extravagant* praise on Ariosto, when he called him *first* of poets.' He maintains that there is no *extravagance* in the case, and that he has all the readers of that divine poet on his side. Should he die in this opinion we cannot help it; we have generally found the conversion of authors a very hopeless undertaking. He is angry that we call some of the rhymes we found fault with '*Hibernian*,' and says it is 'a national reflection.' Here the ire of Mr. Stirling has prevented him from attending to matter of fact. We said very modestly, we thought, and we are sure very truly, that 'the Irish pronunciation of the words *receive* and *stream* (reseave, strame) injures the effect of the following description;' nor will our opinion, we imagine, be controverted; but we did *not* give them the appellation of *Hibernian*. Mr. Sterling admits they are bad rhymes, nay more, has corrected them in the present edition; and yet this ungrateful bard abuses us for the good advice which he has followed! Instead of correcting that solitary example, it would perhaps have been better for him to have kept our remark in view throughout the whole revisal of his poems, we should not then have met with the same species of fault so frequently in this corrected edition. The following instances of what our author calls '*weak* rhymes,' which he falsely alledges we denominated '*Hibernian*,' and which we only venture to say are owing to the Irish pronunciation, are all to be found in p. 15 and 16, 'care, appear, share, severe, cease, face, sway, sea.' Were we to enumerate every rhyme of this kind to be found in the work, the list would be a long one indeed; but as the task is disagreeable, and the author has been ungrateful for what we have already done in this way, we shall leave them for his own discovery. We still maintain that to '*wail* in *speechless* woe is what is called a bull;' and we now farther say that it is *not* the bull of Moschus, who only tells us that Echo lamented among the rocks, because she could no more imitate the songs of Bion. If the author will reconsider the passage, he will find that we have attended to the original, fully as much as himself.

He has endeavoured to make something like a defence for his '*deep* Aönian *rill*;' but, after all, wisely abandons it, and substitutes a *fountain* in its place. The exchange meets with our approbation. With our 'profound observations on expletives,' &c. he declares he will have nothing to do, he leaves us in 'full and undisputed possession.' Now, had we been to give him friendly advice on this occasion, we should have counselled him to keep the *observations*, as he has done our other remarks, for *use*, and to part with the *expletives*, &c.; but on some people advice is thrown away.

The nerves of the Reviewer have not been affected by any part of this angry preface, except by the last sentence; that he confesses has alarmed him. 'As a friend,' says Mr. Steiling, 'I would advise him never to go to Ireland; there he will meet with *no mercy*; there

'Bulls roam at large, and butt at all mankind.'

He will, however, take Mr. Sterling's friendly advice, and avoid, if possible, these butting bulls, of whom, he supposes, the bulls of Bashan were only a type. He cannot, however, avoid remarking that St. Patrick stopped short in his work of extirpation, and that he undoubtedly should have destroyed this terrible race of bulls along with the other noxious animals of Ireland.

ART. 23. *The Contrast; or, A comparative View of France and England at the present Period. A Poem. Addressed to the Right Hon. W. Pitt.* 4to. 2s. Cadell. London, 1790.

This poem, as its title professes, is addressed to Mr. Pitt; but, lest an opportunity should be lost of bringing forward the virtues of another illustrious character, we have a dedication to the Duke of Dorset. His Grace is also treated with an apostrophe in the poem itself:

'Here, too, while civil rage and tumult storm'd,
And dark suspicion groundless terrors form'd,
For pure, recorded worth, let Dorset's name
Wake in each British breast a grateful flame;
'Twas *his* with manly confidence to *stand*.'

We thought *he* had *left* Paris on the occasion, and always admired his prudence for keeping clear of a quarrel in which he was no way interested.

The following description of Mr. Pitt the reader will admit has something more than poetry to recommend it:

'Born with that great and comprehensive mind,
For stations of the highest trust design'd,
Pow'rs which thro' nature cast their piercing view,
Wisdom to frame, and firmness to pursue;
With plans of amplest range a spirit fraught,
The fire of action and the depth of thought;
The patriot ardour and unbiass'd zeal,
That glow unwearied for the public weal;
The native honour and unspotted truth,
Which beam'd such lustre on thy early youth,
With all that pure, hereditary fame,
Transmitted from a mighty parent's name;
To what new point say could thy views aspire,
What fairer promise Britain's hopes require?
Thy sovereign saw at once, with guardian eyes,
The means to make his people's glory rise;
'Midst party struggle and seditious rage,
And all the schemes Ambition's train engage;

Thro'

Thro' the surrounding mists which cloud the throne,
Saw with what native light thy virtue shone,
And with decided, patriotic hand,
Rais'd thee to govern and to bless the land.'

These specimens will be sufficient to shew the general style and execution of this little poem, which is not without a considerable share of merit, though in many parts unequal.

ART. 24. *Six Days Tour in Normandy.* 8vo. 2s. Egerton. London, 1790.

This little work is entertaining, and contains some information. The description of the insurrections at Caen and Cherbourg carry with them an air of accuracy and truth, which may make them useful documents for the future historians of the revolution then becoming general.

ART. 25. *Gynomachia; or, A Contest between Two Old Ladies in the Service of a celebrated Orator.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Walter. London, 1790.

The two old ladies are the moral and political consciences of Mr. Burke. These our satirical bard has thought proper to represent in the act of justifying their conduct before Minos, and the other judges of hell. They give their reasons at length for having induced their master to speak and act so inconsistently. The design of the writer is to persuade the public that the political connexions of Mr. Burke have been unfriendly to his original moral principles.

The poem is too long, nor does it atone for this fault by its pleasantry, or any other species of merit.

ART. 26. *The Trial between the Phœnix Assurance Company and Mr. James Brown, late of St. Paul's Church-Yard: containing the Evidence delivered in the Court of Common-Pleas, at the Guildhall in the City of London, Dec. 15, 1789. Copied from the Notes of Mr. Gurney, taken in the Court.* 8vo. No Price. Published by Order of the Phœnix Fire-Office.

The best account we can give of this trial is by transcribing the advertisement prefixed to it:

'Several of the public prints having lately inserted false and inflammatory accounts respecting the cause between the Phœnix Assurance Company and Mr. James Brown, late of St. Paul's Church-yard, tending to cast reflections on the office, who acted under the advice of eminent counsel, and who had nothing in view by resisting Mr. Brown's claim but a desire of discharging their duty to the public.—The following is a correct account of the evidence given at the trial, and taken by Mr. Gurney.'

ART. 27. *The Young Lady of Fortune; or, Her Lover gained by Stratagem. A Novel in Two Volumes. By a Lady.* 8vo. 3s. Stalker. London, 1789.

Whatever may be the contents of a *two-volume novel* we at leaſt expect two neat pocket volumes, printed on fine paper, price 5s. The one before us is two volumes ſtitched in one, and vilely printed on vile paper. Perhaps this was all that could be afforded for three ſhillings; and we will venture to pronounce it as much as the work deſerves.

ART. 28. *Tyranny annihilated; or, The Triumph of Freedom over Deſpotiſm; containing a particular Account of the Riſe, Progreſs, and various Incidents which produced the late grand and memorable Revolution in the Government of France. With an ample and juſt Deſcription of that horrid State Priſon the Baſtile, &c.* 8vo. 1s. Adlard, London, 1789.

This pamphlet differs from that entitled 'Deſtruction of the Baſtile,' by affording a retroſpect of the incidents which led to that important event. It may therefore be conſidered as a proper introduction to the memorable cataſtrophe which enſued.

ART. 29. *A Syſtem of Mechanics; being the Subſtance of Lectures upon that branch of Natural Philoſophy. By the Rev. T. Parkinſon, M. A.* 4to. 16s. ſewed. Merrill, Cambridge; Cadell, London, 1785.

This dull compilation is decorated with a mathematical form. The author's ideas are generally crude, often abſurd, and his labours have been conducted without taſte or judgment. 'The magnitude of the ratio of equal quantities is,' he ſays, 'equal to nothing; for the exiſtence of ratios reſults from the inequality of the quantities compared.' The ſame unphiloſophical ſpirit pervades the whole work. He treats the properties of motion, gravitation, coheſion, elaſticity, the mechanical powers, the centres of gravity, oſcillation, percuſſion, &c. with great diffuſion; but his demonſtrations are obſcure and highly inelegant.

DIVINITY.

ART. 30. *An Apology for the Liturgy and Clergy of the Church of England; in Anſwer to a Pamphlet entitled Hints, &c. ſubmitted to the ſerious Attention of the Clergy, Nobility, and Gentry, newly aſſociated. By a Layman. In a Letter to the Author from a Clergyman.* London, 1789.

The pamphlet, to which this is an anſwer, has been greatly extolled by ſuch as are ſticklers for a reviſal of our liturgy. It is even aſcribed, and with ſome confidence, to a nobleman of talents, who had once the honour to occupy the firſt department in the ſtate. The reply likewiſe diſcovers ſome marks of being the production of no common writer. After giving his opinion of the two metropolitans, which is equally honourable to both, the author ſpeaks of his independence, and prevents all imputation of flattery from the hope of reward in very ſerious and unequivocal language. This from a clergyman

clergyman is a proof that his ſituation muſt at leaſt be to him ſatisfactory. But be the writer who he may, our religious eſtabliſhment is indebted to his abilities and his induſtry for one of the beſt apologies for her clergy and liturgy that has ever been penned. He is perfectly maſter of the argument, and aware of every exception that has been urged to leſſen or invalidate its influence. His details and ſtatements are enriched with an abundance of the beſt information; the writers of note or name who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves for or againſt the Church of England, are familiar to him. And notwithſtanding his avowed and ſtrenuous attachment to the general principles of the hierarchy, in repelling the cavils of the ignorant or the credulous, he preſerves the manners and writes in the language of a gentleman. We are therefore of opinion that this *Apology* will be read for the ſpirit it breathes, and the information it gives, when the diſpute in which it originated is forgotten.

ART. 31. *A Sermon preached in Whitehall Chapel, at the Conſecration of the Right Rev. John Douglas, D. D. Lord Biſhop of Carliſle, on Sunday, Nov.* 18, 1787. *By Brown Griſdale, D.D. Chaplain in Ordinary to his Majeſty. Publiſhed by Command of the Lord Archbiſhop of York.* 4to. 1s. Cadell. London, 1788.

The duty of moderation, particularly in religious paſtors, is in this ſermon very elegantly and pathetically inſiſted on. The various advantages attending it are forcibly and judiciouſly pointed out, and the eſtabliſhed Church of England is ſhewn to have derived its principal ſtrength and true conſequence from the exerciſe of this virtue, even in the plenitude of her power. The contrary conduct of ſome diſſentients is marked out, and the warmeſt advocates for reformation are taught that the way to procure it is not by violent declamation, but by that moderation which may induce men to attend to them with calmneſs, inſtead of being alarmed at the boldneſs and novelty of their propoſitions. Several honourable teſtimonies from foreign writers are added, to ſhew the high eſteem in which the Engliſh church is deſervedly held in every enlightened part of the globe.

ART. 32. *Two Diſcourſes, I. On the Wiſdom attainable by Meditation on the Vanity of Human Life, and the Benefit of Chriſtianity; II. Men more influenced by Example than Precept evident from ſacred and prophane Scripture. Preached in the Aſylum, March* 8, 1789. *By the Rev. Samuel Hopkinſon, A. M.* 4to. 2s. London, 1789.

Theſe are probationary diſcourſes, preached at the Aſylum during the late vacancy. To the firſt is added a very ſenſible addreſs to the guardians; and to the ſecond a moſt affectionate one to the children of the Aſylum. It has been the fate of Mr. Hopkinſon in offering himſelf a candidate for this popular ſituation, though ſtarting with very inferior competitors, to be diſtanced. But this publication is a ſatisfactory proof to his friends that his failure was not owing to want of parts, but want of intereſt, want of aſſiduity, or want of addreſs.

ART.

ART. 33. *A Sermon preached in the Parish Church of ——, in the County of Cornwall, on Thursday the 23d of April, 1789, the Day of public Thanksgiving to Almighty God for the Recovery of his most sacred Majesty King George the Third from his late dangerous Indisposition.* 8vo. 1s. All Booksellers. London, 1789.

Notwithstanding this discourse is anonymous, preached we know not where, and sold we know not by whom, there is nothing in it that is exceptionable. It is full of piety and gratitude for the preservation of the king; it endeavours to render our duty to superiors a willing obedience, and it exhorts the good people of England to be quiet and thankful, to do their own business, and demean themselves as useful members of society; to go to church, say their prayers, and pay their taxes. These wholesome doctrines are taught in plain language; and the author, from what he says, and his manner of saying it, seems to be a serious, honest, well-meaning man.

ART. 34. *The English Revolution vindicated from the Misrepresentation of the Adherents of the House of Stuart, in a Discourse preached at Cookham, in the Diocese of Sarum, on Sunday, Oct. 25, 1789, being the Anniversary of his Majesty's happy Accession. By George Berkeley, LL.D. Prebendary of Canterbury, and Rector of St. Clement Danes.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Cadell. London, 1789.

The author of this popular discourse has looked into the English constitution with the eye of a philosopher and a patriot, a Christian divine, and a citizen of the world. Upon the unfeigned allegiance now paid to the king by his subjects of every description, the re-establishment of his majesty's health, and the duty of subjects to government, as the leading heads of his sermon, he insists at considerable length. And what he says is often both original and convincing. He anticipates the arguments of the Dissenters against the test, and warns the public, in language at once earnest and forcible, of the handle they would make of the commotions in France. He reprobates and exposes this dangerous reference in the true spirit of one who sincerely loves and *prays for the peace of Jerusalem.* His account of the Revolution, his character of King William the Third, though different from that which is annually read in the Revolution Club, his statement of the doctrine of resistance, and his objections to the present ferment raised by the enemies of the establishment, are all specimens of sound reasoning and good writing.

ART. 35. *A Sermon preached at Maze Pond, Southwark, Sept. 27, 1789, for the Benefit of the Society established in London for the Support and Encouragement of Sunday Schools in the different Counties of England. By James Dore.* 8vo. 6d. Buckland. London, 1789.

The scope of this discourse is to impress the minds of men with the invaluable contents of the sacred books. And this the preacher does in a strain of eloquence at once simple, elegant, and convincing. Here is no labour, no affectation, no straining after fine language, originality of composition, richness of imagery, or any other ornament; but the preacher is every where in earnest; every thing he says

says is serious; and the truths he details are in their nature so interesting and weighty as to make a proper and lasting impression on every well-disposed mind. The application of the subject to the encouragement of Sunday schools is natural and apposite. The institution is a benefit to society, has our best wishes for its success, and every effort in its favour is always sure of our approbation.

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS

For MARCH, 1790.

THE LATE EMPEROR OF GERMANY.

JOSEPH II. of Austria, of whom, during the life-time of his illustrious mother and immediate predecessor on the Austrian throne, the world, according to its usual prepossession in favour of untried princes, fondly predicted all that was good and great, terminated his reign precisely where he should have begun it. He recognised himself, and enjoined to his successor, the necessity of moderation in matters of government, and particularly that of governing a free people by their own laws, and leaving or placing the great offices of power and trust in the hands of chiefs natives of the country. How far, had his life been miraculously prolonged, he would have been regulated in his conduct by his own dying maxims, it is impossible to ascertain, though not very difficult to conjecture. Ease, perhaps, would have recanted vows made in pain. The restoration of health would have been followed by a return of habit. The usual modes of thinking and acting would have recurred. No condition of human affairs, whether prosperous or adverse, is so fixed as to be exempted from revolution. And the very first favourable turn in politics, or advantage in war, might have induced the fickle, fluctuating, and faithless mind of the ever-active and ambitious Joseph, full of the dignity of his family and the pretensions of sovereign princes, a third time to have violated his word to his Belgic subjects; if we could conceive it possible that they might have trusted to a repetition of vows repeatedly broken.

These conjectures will not appear wholly nugatory if they only afford a natural transition from what Joseph would have probably done to what his brother and successor

LEOPOLD

may probably do. The late Grand Duke of Tuscany, and present King of Hungary and Bohemia, &c. has proved by his celebrated code of laws, and the whole tenour of his life and conversation, the humanity and justice of his own disposition, and the mildness of the close of the eighteenth century. But princes

princes of the mildeſt and moſt pacific diſpoſitions have been induced to begin or continue war where they entertained an opinion of the juſtice of their cauſe, and were excited to action by the counſels of thoſe in whom they placed their confidence. There could not be a greater contraſt, in point of natural diſpoſition, than has been exhibited already in two ſovereign princes of the Auſtrian race, Philip II. and Philip III. of Spain; the former ambitious, perfidious, and cruel; the latter peaceable, juſt, and humane. Yet Philip III. continued the war that had ſo long been waged againſt the liberties of the Belgic people by Philip II. while it was in his power to continue it. Philip III. as well as Philip II. gloried in being the grand ſupport of the Church of Rome, and gave their ſanction to the cruelties of the inquiſition.

The humbler the ſtation in which a man is placed in life the more circumſcribed naturally are his views; the loftier the eminence on which he ſtands, the more extenſive naturally is the proſpect around him. The beggar lives, as it were, from minute to minute, and from hour to hour; the day-labourer from week to week; the manufacturer and merchant look farther before them, but are ſtill governed by the ſpirit and tone of the preſent month and year. The man of landed property, who is ambitious to eſtabliſh or aggrandiſe his family, embraces a wider horizon, and, caſting his eyes forward over a length of time, in which the eſtate he holds and improves is to paſs through the hands of different heirs, endeavours to fix ſuch maxims in his family, and to eſtabliſh ſuch arrangements and meaſures, as ſhall ſecure the patrimony he leaves againſt the caprices and follies of individuals, and to tranſmit it with additions, at leaſt unimpaired, from generation to generation. But moſt of all do the heads and repreſentatives of royal houſes carry their views backward into paſt, and forward into future times. Surveying the expreſſive images of their anceſtry, and anticipating in their imagination the fancied forms of progeny yet unborn, they conſider themſelves as accountable to thoſe inviſible judges of their conduct. Their own perſonal character is modified, in ſome degree, by that of the race from whence they are ſprung; the aggrandiſement of which, in ſome ſhape or other, is generally one of their predominant paſſions.

Though PETER LEOPOLD, therefore, be as oppoſite to the character of Joſeph II. as Philip II. was to that of Philip III. of Auſtria, ſtill it cannot be expected that he, any more than Philip the * PIOUS AND GOOD, ſhould renounce at once the pride and the ambition of his family. It is evident, indeed, notwithſtanding his declaration to the contrary, that he ſtill cheriſhes

* The epithets beſtowed on Philip III. by the Spaniards.

the maxim—if not already, yet ſoon to be antiquated—'that the 'people are made for kings, not kings for the people.' For, at the ſame time that he reprobates the perfidious and tyrannical conduct of his deceaſed brother, he maintains that the right of ſovereignty over the Netherlands is ſtill hereditary in his family. He is therefore willing to grant all that the Flemings can deſire for the ſecurity of their privileges, provided they will only acknowledge him, as he has never forfeited his title, to be their ſovereign.

There is a doctrine in the Calviniſtical creed, as expreſſed in the catechiſm compoſed by the famous aſſembly of divines at Weſtminſter, in the reign, or nominal reign of Charles I. 'That all mankind deſcending from Adam (their head and re-'preſentative) by ordinary generation, ſinned in him, and fell 'with him in his firſt tranſgreſſion.' This is, by ſome, conſidered as very queſtionable theology; and in truth it is only very tender and ſuſceptible minds that can feel any degree of compunction on account of ſins committed many thouſands of years before they were born. But if it be bad divinity, it is, in many caſes, good policy. If the Belgic provinces formed, as under the dukes of Burgundy, a ſeparate monarchy, actually governed by a prince of the Burgundian line reſiding amongſt them, it would be political wiſdom, in order to preſerve the ſucceſſion clear and undiſputed, to accept, without heſitation, the terms offered by Leopold. A claimant with ſo natural a title to the Burgundian throne, if poſſeſſed of any degree of ambition and intrigue, might be able, like the exiled princes of the Stuart race, though of very ſlender capacities, to excite or foſter internal diſcord, and to diſturb the tranquillity, and even endanger the exiſtence, of the new government by a foreign invaſion. The generality of the people will always entertain a ſtrong predilection for the *natual* heir. The title of blood is, with the multitude, the ſtrongeſt claim, and the moſt eaſily comprehended. Nor is this conſtitution of human nature to be conſidered as unfortunate; it tends to give ſtability to monarchical, when duly modified the beſt ſpecies of government, and prevent thoſe calamities which ſo often overtook the Roman empire, and which now ſo frequently deſolate eaſtern nations, and the kingdom of Poland in Europe. If the States-General continue to hold the reins of government in the Catholic Netherlands, the Belgic nation groans under the preſſure of a kind of double and monſtrous ariſtocracy; if a republic is attempted, there is danger of anarchy; if a new chief ſhall be elected, in the room of the late Duke of Brabant, the natural pretenſions of Leopold will ſtill remain; and envy and jealouſy will be excited at the new ſovereign and his family. On his demiſe, or on ſome other occaſion perhaps, various popular leaders might put in their claim

claims to the ſucceſſion. A few inſtances of this kind would effectually prevent the eſtabliſhment of regal power in one family, and determine the nature of the new government to be elective.

In order to obviate all theſe evils, a plain path would lie before the Belgic nation, as has already been obſerved, if Peter Leopold were the natural heir of the Catholic Provinces only, and did concentrate in his hands the widely extended dominions of Auſtria, on both this and the other ſide of the mountains. As the Scottiſh lords, after they had dethroned Mary, prudently avoided the evils of a diſputed ſucceſſion by transferring their allegiance from the mother to her infant ſon, ſo the Belgic people, whoſe depoſition of the *quondam* Duke of Brabant has been ratified, ſealed, and guaranteed by the hand of that mighty emperor DEATH, might ſafely, and with great advantage, transfer the ſceptre that had fallen from the graſping hands of Joſeph into thoſe of his peaceful and unambitious brother; ſafely,—becauſe, under the limitations to which he is willing to ſubmit, he could never ſubdue the Belgic liberties with armies compoſed of Belgic patriots; with advantage,—becauſe the provinces, having taken a ſtrong and bloody proteſt againſt all tyrannical encroachment, their new ſovereign would not dare to repeat an experiment that had proved ſo diſaſtrous, and which precipitated the fate of his predeceſſor. To the memorial, therefore, of the preſent King of Hungary, communicated to the States-General by the hands of the Archdukes Chriſtina and Albert, the Belgic nation might briefly reply, 'There was a time when the people were thought 'to be made for the grandeur of kings, and that kings, without 'conſulting their ſubjects, might, by intermarriages and other-'wiſe, accumulate crowns *ad infinitum*. It was in ſuch times 'of darkneſs that the cultivated and refined provinces of the 'Netherlands were transferred with the daughter of Charles 'the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, to the Houſe of Auſtria. But 'were ſuch a meaſure in agitation, in the preſent enlightened 'times, we ſhould ſay to the heirs of the Duke of Burgundy, 'You have a right, and you are welcome to hold the reigns of 'our government while you diſdain not to remain and to con-'tinue ONE of US. But we will not conſent that BELGIUM 'ſhall become a province, and ſwell the pride with the power 'of the Counts of Hapſbourg. The language that ſhould have 'been held by our anceſtors we hold at this day. If you are 'willing to come among us alone, and unarmed, we receive 'you with gladneſs, and hail you as our ſovereign. If you 'come in the pomp and power of all the other dominions held 'by your predeceſſor, make your option between the dignity of 'the Duke of Burgundy and that of the Archduke of Auſtria.'

It

It is as reaſonable that an oppoſition ſhould be made to the accumulation of crowns on one hand, for the ſake of civil as for the ſake of political independence. In the debates in the Scottiſh parliament, on the ſubject of the Union, one of the members, after rehearſing the grievances that Scotland had ſuffered from the acceſſion of James to the throne of England, boldly ſaid, 'The Scotch nation, at that criſis, when ſhe was 'forſaken by her king, ſhould have declared the throne vacant.' What, we may alſo aſk, on this general ſubject of the danger accruing to the liberties of men from the exceſſive aggrandiſement of their ſovereigns, what would have become of the liberties of Engliſhmen if the King of Great-Britain had continued for a century, or half a century, longer to be King of America?

Theſe things ſhould be ever preſent to the minds of the Belgians at this moſt critical juncture. Leopold, alone and unarmed, might and ought to be received with open arms. But the Archduke of Auſtria, or rather the GENIUS of the Houſe of Auſtria*, is ever to be ſuſpected. If with this genius the Belgians begin to negociate, their cauſe is loſt; He will begin with mildneſs, proceed with ſpirit, and end with cruelty.

But, even with this proſpect before their eyes, what ſhall the Belgian people, under which name we comprehend not thoſe miſerable fanatics who blindly devote themſelves as inſtruments in the hands of a domineering and cruel prieſthood, but the enlightened part of the nation, who think and feel like men?—What ſhall the patriots do when a double ariſtocracy, combined with the ſcum of the people againſt the deliverers of the ſtate, proſcribe ſuch men as Walckiers and Herries, the Count de la Marck, the Duke D'Aremberg, and the Duke D'Urſel? In ſuch circumſtances the blind fury of democracy appears in all the horror of the moſt ſanguinary deſpotiſm; and monarchy, at leaſt limited monarchy, appears the moſt deſirable, and the only ſafe harbour from civil ſtorms.

Leaving the Auſtrian Netherlands, in the moſt anxious ſuſpence, for a while, we paſs on to

FRANCE,

Where matters are indeed far from being ſettled, and concerning the final iſſue of which it is ſcarcely poſſible to form any conjecture, but where prieſtcraft is overthrown, and juſt ſentiments are entertained of the dignity and rights of human nature.—Whatever be the reſult of the preſent commotions, a

* The mind of Leopold may be influenced by the counſels of thoſe around him at Vienna; and, at any rate, the period of his life is precarious.

revolution

revolution has taken place favourable, to a certain extent, to the interests of humanity. No French minister will hereafter hope to shade his conduct under a veil of mystery, or to impose taxes without the knowledge and general consent of the nation. Every great measure of state will be made a subject of investigation, and, by the general voice, adopted or rejected.

The situation of France secures the tranquillity of Europe against the usual intrigues of the House of Bourbon. And, according to the aspect of the present moment, it is to be expected that an accommodation will take place between the emperor and the revolted provinces, without an appeal to arms. Nevertheless

A WAR ON THE CONTINENT

seems to be inevitable, as the King of Prussia, determined, according to the plan of Frederic the Great, to extend his frontier towards the sea coast, and to humble the power of both Austria and Russia, has objects in view which nothing but war can accomplish. Though the elder branch of the House of Bourbon be crippled by civil distraction, and the want of money, Spain, it is probable, will not remain entirely pacific. The Sardinians as well as the Spaniards must appear in the Mediterranean, and support the Russian fleet in the Archipelago.

THE DISSENTERS,

Many of whom are great mathematicians, conceiving that it was their own bustling exertions that produced so great a number of votes in their * favour, on a former occasion, reasoned, as mathematicians sometimes do, justly on false principles. If, said they to themselves, a certain quantity of bustling has produced a certain number of votes, what will a greater produce? They little thought that the decrease of their political friends would be in the inverse ratio of their own activity.

* The question for the repeal moved in favour of the Dissenters was, on that occasion, negatived only by twenty.

ERRATA in last Number of our POLITICAL APPENDIX.

Page 160, l. 15. for *a similar*, read the same.

Ditto, for the two last lines, read 'While every mouth is full 'of the resentments that urged, and the political views and 'inconsistencies of many who voted for an impeachment 'against him.'

☞ *Communications for* THE ENGLISH REVIEW *are requested to be sent to* Mr. MURRAY, No. 32, Fleet-street, London; *where Subscribers for this Monthly Performance are respectfully desired to give in their Names.*

THE

ENGLISH REVIEW,

For APRIL 1790.

ART. I. *Lectures on History and General Policy; to which is prefixed an Essay on a Course of liberal Education for civil and active Life. By Joseph Priestley, LL.D. F.R.S. Ac. Imp. Petrop. R. Paris. Holm. Taurin. Aurel. Med. Paris. Harlem. Cantab. Americ. et Philad. Socius.* 4to. Birmingham, printed: Johnson, London. 1788.

AMONG the numerous productions of this indefatigable writer, no one can lay claim to more utility than the work now before us. By unfolding the phenomena of nature, weaving the endless web of metaphysics, or touching the discordant string of controversy, we address ourselves to few, and our labours are of use to a still smaller number; but in the narrative of the actions, and delineation of the passions of men in every possible situation, every thinking mind is interested, and draws from this living source of example the most useful kind of knowledge, the knowledge of *man*. This, as the mind directs the actions of the body, points out the proper employment of all our acquirements; without it as a philosopher, as a man of business, as a politician, a man loses himself in ideal theories, and can never become an useful member of society. The world is therefore much obliged to that person who endeavours to facilitate the study of history, and enable the student to reap every

advantage which attends it. In this view the public will not be ungrateful to Dr. Prieſtley.

We cannot give the reader a higher idea of the importance of this work, or a clearer view of the plan purſued in it, than by inſerting the introduction to the firſt lecture:

'The ſtudy of hiſtory is more or leſs the employment of all perſons of reading and education. This was, indeed, the earlieſt uſe that was made of letters. For the moſt ancient poems were almoſt entirely hiſtorical; and verſe was firſt cultivated in preference to proſe (which ſeems to be the moſt natural vehicle of hiſtory) as the beſt, becauſe the moſt ſecure, method of tranſmitting to poſterity the knowledge of paſt events. In all ages the writing of hiſtory has employed the ableſt men of all nations; and to this day hardly any writer enjoys a greater, a more extenſive, and what will probably be a more laſting reputation, than a good hiſtorian.

'The infinite variety there is in the ſubjects of hiſtory, makes it inviting to perſons of every diſpoſition. It may be either trifling or ſerious. It ſupplies materials with equal eaſe and equal copiouſneſs for the ſallies of mirth, and the graveſt diſquiſitions of philoſophy. As every thing comes under the denomination of hiſtory, which informs us of any *fact* which is too remote in time or place to be the ſubject of our perſonal knowledge; it is calculated for the uſe of perſons of both ſexes, and of men of all ranks and of all profeſſions in life. Becauſe it cannot be preſumed that a perſon of any profeſſion, or in any ſituation, can, of himſelf, come at the knowledge of every fact which it is for his advantage to be acquainted with.

'Hiſtory is ſo connected with, and eſſential to, all kinds of knowledge, that the moſt ſuperficial eſſay upon any ſubject whatever is hardly tolerable, unleſs ſome kind of hiſtorical facts be introduced or alluded to in it. The neceſſity of facts to moral writers, or thoſe who write upon the theory of human nature, I need not mention. And certainly no perſon can be a good divine, much leſs undertake any part of the controverſy with unbelievers, unleſs he be very well acquainted with hiſtory, civil as well as eccleſiaſtical. Indeed, more than half of the books of ſcripture conſiſt of hiſtory. And as all the prophecies of the Old and New Teſtament muſt be verified by hiſtory, none but a good hiſtorian can be a judicious commentator upon ſuch important parts of the ſacred writings.

'Beſides, an acquaintance with hiſtory is agreeable to us as ſociable and converſeable creatures; ſince it may be conſidered as a means of extending the power of converſation, and making the dead of the party equally with the living. Nay, as things are circumſtanced, the dead contribute more largely to gratify our natural and eager curioſity to be informed of paſt and remote tranſactions.

'In this field of hiſtory, therefore, which is open to every man of letters, and in which every man of taſte and curioſity cannot fail to paſs a great part of his leiſure hours, it cannot but be deſirable to have a guide (at leaſt upon a perſon's firſt introduction into it) leſt he ſhould loſe himſelf in the boundleſs variety it affords, and not be able

able to find those convenient eminences from which he will have the most easy and agreeable view of the objects it contains. In the character of this guide, gentlemen, I now offer you my best assistance.

'The course of lectures we are now entering upon is intended to facilitate the study of history, both by directing you to the easiest methods of *acquiring* and *retaining* the knowledge of it, and making the proper *use* of it when you are possessed of it.

'That the observations I have collected for this purpose may be the most intelligible and useful, I shall dispose of them in the following method; considering,

'I. The general uses of history.

'II. The sources of history.

'III. What is necessary or useful to be known previous to the study of history.

'IV. Directions for the more easy acquiring and retaining a knowledge of history.

'V. Proper objects of attention to an historian. And under this head I shall consider the several subjects of *general policy*, or the circumstances that chiefly contribute to render civil societies secure, numerous, and happy, as being the most important of all objects of attention to readers of history.

'VI. In the last place I would give you a general view of history civil and ecclesiastical, but shall content myself with referring to Holberg, or some other epitome of general history.'

These five general heads are subdivided into a variety of particulars, which comprehend much more than is promised in the title-page; indeed, they contain a range of knowledge so extensive, and so well adapted to the purposes of life, that the attainment of it would not only lead to a complete acquaintance with the history of all ages, but form the useful citizen, the able statesman, and intelligent philosopher. The following subjects, which are treated of in Part V, ('Of the most important 'objects of attention to a reader of history') will confirm what we have said. 'Different objects to different persons, &c. 'General observations on political measures, periods of history 'more particularly worthy of attention.—The rise and declen- 'sion of the Roman empire. The time when the history of 'several European countries begins to be interesting to the rest 'of Europe.—The most remarkable periods in the English and 'Scotch history. The most interesting periods in the history 'of literature and the arts.—The most important periods in 'the history of manufactures and commerce.—Every thing in- 'teresting in history which contributes to make a nation happy, 'populous, or secure. Of government in general.—Of poli- 'tical and civil liberty, &c.—Of despotic government.—Of 'democracy.—Of aristocracy. Of the present European mo- 'narchies.—Of the permanence of governments, &c.—Of a

'ſtate of barbariſm. The European governments (and particularly the Engliſh) traced from their riſe in Germany to their preſent form.—Of the feudal ſyſtem, &c.—Riſe of corporations. The riſe of the Engliſh commons. The declenſion of the feudal ſyſtem not equal in all parts of Europe.——Of laws, criminal laws, &c.——The theory of the progreſs of law.—Of an attention to agriculture.—Of arts and manufactures.—Of commerce.—Of colonies to a commercial ſtate.—Maxims with reſpect to money.—Of the intereſt of money. Of paper money. Of exchange.—Of luxury, &c.—Of politeneſs, &c. Of the influence of religion on civil ſociety. Of civil eſtabliſhments of religion. The influence of philoſophy on civil affairs.—Of the populouſneſs of nations.—Of the ſtrength of nations.—Of the expences of government.—Of national debts.—Of ſcience, &c. &c.—Of an attention to Divine Providence in the conduct of human affairs.'

The reader will perceive, by this detail of ſubjects, which appear under a ſingle head, the wide field which is opened before him. We do not ſay that upon all, or indeed upon any of theſe ſubjects, he will meet with every thing that is neceſſary to be known. This was not to be expected; neither was it the intention of the author that he ſhould. But here he will find the route that he is to purſue marked out with truth and preciſion, and in general every author referred to which can enable him to proceed with ſucceſs; and this is all that can be expected from a work of the kind, from a *text-book* for lectures on hiſtory. A few errors and inadvertencies which Dr. Prieſtley has fallen into, the reader will be enabled to correct by a careful examination of the ſources from which the lectures are compiled, and which, as we have already obſerved, are referred to in the work.

We could have wiſhed to have laid before the public what the author has ſaid of the method of ſtudying Engliſh hiſtory, and his account of our original hiſtorians; but ſuch an extract would carry us beyond our proper bounds; we ſhall therefore content ourſelves with inſerting his account of our hiſtorians from the ſixteenth century:

'The firſt writer worthy of our notice in the ſixteenth century is Robert Fabian, an eminent merchant, and ſome time ſheriff of London, where he died in the year 1512. His *Hiſtoriarum Concordantiæ* conſiſts of ſeven parts, of which the ſix firſt bring down the hiſtory from Brutus to William the Conqueror; and in the ſeventh he gives the hiſtory of our kings from the Conqueror to Henry VII. He is very particular in the affairs of London, many things concerning the government of that great city being noted by him which are not to

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be met with any where else. He mixes all along the French history with the English, but in different chapters. In the beginning of the seventh part he observes Higden's method, of making his years commence at Michaelmas.

'Polydore Virgil was the most accomplished writer, for elegance and clearness of style, that this age afforded. He wrote the history of our nation in Latin to Henry VIII. He was much acquainted with English affairs; but being a catholic, he gives a very unfair account of the reformation, and of the conduct of the protestants. His work, however, is necessary to supply a chasm of almost seventy years in our history, including particularly the lives of Edward IV. and Edward V. which period is hardly to be found in Latin in any other author.

'Edward Hall, who was some time recorder of London, where he died in the year 1547, wrote a large account of the wars between the houses of York and Lancaster, which he dedicates to Henry VIII. If the reader desires to know what sort of clothes were worn in each king's reign, and how the fashions altered, this is the author for his purpose. In other respects his information is not very valuable.

'The Chronicle written by William Harrison and Ralph Hollingshead, two obscure clergymen, was well received, and is still greatly esteemed. Hollingshead frequently owns the great assistance he had from Francis Thynne, some time Lancaster herald, and an eminent antiquary in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. The second edition of this history was continued to the year 1586 by John Hooper, alias Vowel.

'The first author we meet with in the seventeenth century is John Stow. He was a member of the Merchant Taylors' company in London. He travelled through a good part of England in search after manuscript historians, in the libraries of our cathedral churches, and was very exact and critical in his collections. Having spent above forty years in these studies, he was put upon the correction and publishing of Reyne Wolf's Chronicle, by Archbishop Whitgift; and he had fairly transcribed his work, and made it ready for the press, when he died, in the year 1605. Upon his death the revising and continuation of his work was committed to Edward Hows, who says he bestowed thirty years in bringing it into that good order and method in which we now see it.

'The Chronicle of John Speed is the largest and best, says Mr. Nicholson, that is extant. It begins with the first inhabitants of the island, and ends with the union of the two kingdoms under King James, to whom it is dedicated.

'The Chronicle of Richard Baker, who died in the fleet in the year 1644, met with very great success. The author himself wrote the history of our kings from the Romans down to the end of the reign of James I. and it was continued to the restoration by Edward Philip, who having the perusal of some of the Duke of Albemarle's papers might have set that great revolution in its true light, had not ambition and flattery carried him beyond the truth and his copy.

'In latter times we have had no want of historians, at least of compilers of history. The misfortune is that too many of them have been misled by some favourite hypothesis, which they seem to have written to support. To pass by, therefore, such writers as Sir Winston Churchill, Sandford, Brady, Tyrrel, Echard, Carte, and Guthrie, which are either said to fall under the former censure, or are too voluminous, or ill digested; to be read with much pleasure or improvement, I shall give a short view of the more considerable that remain.

'Clarendon, who accompanied Charles II. in his exile, who was afterwards his chancellor, and last of all discarded by him, wrote a full and pretty faithful history of the civil wars in the reign of Charles I. But as he is thought to adhere too much to the royal party, it will be necessary for the reader to compare his account of things with those of Whitlocke and Ludlow, who were of the opposite party; of whom the one was a zealous presbyterian and the other an independent; and who, on account of the rank and employments they bore under the commonwealth, had no less advantage than Clarendon of being well informed of what they wrote. Clarendon is the first Englishman who seems to have attempted to write history with any degree of dignity; and considering how bad a taste for composition prevailed at this time, his success was considerable. But the length of his periods, and his long and frequent parentheses, are very tiresome.

'Few writers have ever had a better opportunity of procuring information than Bishop Burnet; and the *history* he has left us of *his own times* is certainly a valuable work. But being a zealous advocate for the houses of Orange and Hanover, he is charged with great partiality, and perhaps not wholly without reason, by the party whose principles he opposed.

'Of all the general histories of our nation till the revolution none are so full, and so impartial, as that written by Rapin, a Frenchman, who came over with King William from Holland, and after having served under him in Ireland, and travelled as tutor to some of our English nobility, retired again to Holland, where he spent twenty years in the composition of this excellent history. If this writer be thought tedious in some parts of his work, it is owing to his extreme care to omit no circumstance of any important transaction, and to his fidelity in keeping close to his authorities. The notes of Tindal, who translated this work, are an useful supplement to it, and a correction of it in several places. The same author has written a continuation of Rapin to the reign of George II.

'A more entertaining history of the same period, and much superior in point of composition, is that of Mr. Hume. For a judicious choice of materials, and a happy disposition of them, together with perspicuity of style in recording them, this writer was hardly ever exceeded; especially in the latter part of his work, which is by far the most elaborate. The earlier part of his history is too superficial. He has endeavoured to trace the progress of our constitution, and has descended more into the internal state of the nation, in exhibiting a view of the manners and sentiments of each age, the state

ſtate of property and perſonal ſecurity, with the improvements in the conveniences of life, than moſt other writers; but he has repreſented the ancient government as much more arbitrary than it really was, as will appear by the much more accurate accounts of Dr. Sullivan, and eſpecially Mr. Millar, whoſe work on the Engliſh conſtitution I cannot too ſtrongly recommend. Some great faults in Mr. Hume's hiſtory were well pointed out by Dr. Towers. Mr. Hume is alſo thought by many to have given too favourable an idea of the characters of our princes of the Stewart family, by omitting to mention thoſe particulars in their conduct which have been moſt objected to; and it was probably with a view to exculpate them that he has taken ſo much pains to give the colour that he has done to the preceding periods of our hiſtory. A good antidote to what is unfavourable to liberty in Mr. Hume will be found in the very maſterly hiſtory of Mrs. Macaulay. Though the ſtyle of Mr. Hume is, upon the whole, excellent, yet he has departed more than any other writer of the preſent age from the true Engliſh idiom, and leaned more to that of the French.

'Dr. Robertſon's Hiſtory of Scotland throws great light upon the reign of Queen Elizabeth, and, in point of compoſition, is not inferior to Hume.

'A valuable treaſure of materials for the conſtitutional hiſtory of England is contained in the *Parliamentary Hiſtory* lately publiſhed, and in the journals and debates in the Houſe of Commons by various hands, among which thoſe taken by Mr. Grey are the moſt valuable; relating to the times before and after the important period of the revolution.

'It is in ſuch large works as theſe, and the letters and journals of eminent men, who had a conſiderable ſhare in the tranſactions of their times, as thoſe of Melville, Henry Lord Clarendon, and others, that we are tranſported as it were into thoſe paſt times. Theſe give us an inſight into the manners and turn of thinking which prevailed in them, and bring us intimately acquainted with the perſons who made the greateſt figure in them. Hereby we are enabled to enter into their ſentiments and views, and have a clear idea of their peculiar character, temper, and manner. In ſuch works as theſe the men themſelves are ſeen acting and ſpeaking; whereas in general hiſtory we are, at beſt, only told how they ſpoke and acted, which is a thing very different from the former. Of ſuch books as theſe there has been no want ſince the introduction of printing into England, particularly from the reign of Henry VIII. ſo that a very ſatisfactory idea of our hiſtory from that time may be had by any perſon who will take the requiſite pains for it.'

From what the Doctor has here ſaid of Clarendon, Biſhop Burnet, and Mr. Hume, it will be obſerved that he has, in a great meaſure, preſerved that impartiality which we expected from him as a *philoſopher*, but which, as a *party man*, we doubted whether he would have been able to preſerve. He has ſpoken with moderation, without dogmatiſm, on both ſides. We

ſincerely join with him in his high approbation of Mr. Millar's work on the Engliſh conſtitution, and in his ſtrong recommendation of it to every Britiſh ſubject; but we cannot ſubſcribe to his character of the compilation publiſhed by Mrs. Macaulay, which is in no reſpect what he terms it, a 'very 'maſterly hiſtory.' Neither are we entirely of his opinion as to Dr. Robertſon's hiſtory of Scotland; for, in point of compoſition, we think it inferior to that of Hume. The ſtyle of the latter is clear, unaffected, elegant, and nervous; the diction is always ſuited to the ſubject; they every where riſe and fall together; and therefore give that ſatisfaction to the reader which nature and truth always produce. While, in the latter, things great and ſmall, events the moſt common as well as the moſt intereſting are, contrary to every principle of good taſte, expreſſed in the ſame unvaried pomp of words. We have our doubts too whether, in this latter hiſtory, ſo much 'light be 'thrown upon the reign of Queen Elizabeth' as the Doctor imagines; for if Mr. Whitaker, and the other defenders of Queen Mary, have vindicated the character of that unfortunate queen, which ſeems now to be the moſt general opinion, then the complexion of that period muſt aſſume an oppoſite hue, and many of the characters and tranſactions appear in a very different light from that in which they are exhibited by Dr. Robertſon.

Prefixed to the lectures is 'An Eſſay on a Courſe of liberal 'Education for civil and active Life,' firſt publiſhed in 1764; in which Dr. Prieſtley, with much good ſenſe and becoming modeſty, finds fault with the preſent mode of education, which was at firſt eſtabliſhed to *ſuit* a ſtate of ſociety very different from the preſent, and is now, from habit and prejudice, blindly adhered to, when it is in every reſpect *unſuitable*. Were a thinking ſtranger to be told, in a commercial country, which has colonies or eſtabliſhments in every quarter of the globe, which is obliged to have a numerous army, and a formidable navy; where, by the conſtitution, almoſt every man of education may aſpire to the dignity of a legiſlator, and conſequently, where an education for civil and active life ſhould be chiefly attended to; that in the great *eſtabliſhed* ſeminaries of that country no ſuch thing was ever thought of; what muſt be his aſtoniſhment, could the information obtain belief? Were he further told that, in theſe ſeminaries, the youth were obliged, till they left them at the age of ſeventeen, eighteen, or twenty, to confine themſelves to the ſtudy of two dead languages, in which few of them ever made great proficiency, and that all of them indiſcriminately were compelled to write verſes in theſe languages; could he abſtain from pity or ridicule? But ſhould this intelligent ſtranger venture to ſay, with Dr. Prieſtley, that it is certainly our wiſdom

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to contrive that the ſtudies of youth ſhould tend to fit them for the buſineſs of manhood; and that the objects of their attention, and turn of thinking in younger life, ſhould not be too remote from the deſtined employment of their riper years, he would, from many, meet with aſperity, as a buſy meddler, or contempt, as an ignorant innovator.

The following authentic anecdote will not be here inapplicable, as it places an attention to *words* alone in a proper point of view. A young man of a liberal education, and who had ſpent ſome years abroad at a foreign univerſity, was preſented to a ſmall vicarage in the north of England. Soon after taking poſſeſſion, it was recommended to him by his patron to pay his reſpects to Dean ——, who, as it was now the ſhooting ſeaſon, was in reſidence for a couple of months at his living. He went, and was received with that kind of proud civility which is ſo diſguſting to a man of an independent mind. Dr. C ——, afterwards Archdeacon of ——, was there on a viſit to the Dean; there was no other company but the wives of the two doctors, and three young ladies. At dinner, after ſome ſignificant nods between the two dignitaries, the ſubject of the Greek language was introduced. Dr. C——, who had an excellent memory, repeated long paſſages from Sophocles and Euripides, to evince the beauty of that language; which were commented upon at great length by the learned gentlemen. The vicar, who had been accuſtomed to manners of a different kind, thinking that this converſation could not be entertaining to the ladies, moſtly addreſſed himſelf to them, and was very ſparing of his learned remarks. The pair of doctors, miſtaking politeneſs for ignorance, gave evident ſigns of an intended furious attack, as ſoon as the ladies had retired. When accordingly the latter withdrew, the ſtorm burſt upon him; paſſages from Homer, Sophocles, Plato, Demoſthenes, &c. &c. were quoted, the various readings minutely examined, and the proper one ſettled with much dogmatical deciſion. They now found, however, that the vicar was not ſo ſilent as before, that he mixed in the converſation, and even ventured often to differ in opinion from the learned dignitaries. But all his remarks were rejected; he was told, 'We 'are intimately acquainted with theſe matters, the ſtudy of them 'has been the great buſineſs of our lives; but that we ſuppoſe is 'not your caſe, as you was not bred at either of our univerſi-'ties.' Things went on for ſome time in this way, when the Hymns of Callimachus were mentioned. Dr. C—— addreſſed the dean with much ſelf-conſequence, informing him he had diſcovered that 'δύναται γὰρ, ἐπεὶ Διὶ δεξιὸς ἧται, He can do it, 'ſince he is placed at the right-hand of Jove,' in the Hymn to Apollo, was ſtolen from the 55th verſe of the 7th chapter of the Acts

Acts of the Apostles, ‘ἴδε Ἰησοῦν ἐστῶτα ἐκ δεξιῶν τοῦ Θεοῦ, He ‘saw Jesus standing at the right-hand of God.’ The dean agreed that this was a happy discovery, and that there could be no doubt of the fact. Struck with the absurdity and ignorance of this precious piece of criticism, the vicar, however, preserved his gravity, and only modestly observed that similar ideas naturally produced similar expressions, without inducing the suspicion of theft. ‘Sir, you'll permit us to *know* these things’ was the only reply they condescended to make. Though provoked by their supercilious treatment, the vicar still kept his temper, reserving his home-thrust till next day, when he knew that the doctors were to dine with a large company at the house of his patron. Having previously acquainted him with the reception he had met with from the dean, and his intention of being revenged on him and his brother doctor, he that day contrived to introduce the subject after dinner. The doctors, as keen as ever to display their superior skill in Grecian lore, asked him whether he could *to day* produce any better arguments against the solidity of their remark on Callimachus than he had *yesterday*. ‘I think I can,’ replied he. ‘Do, let us hear them; we dare ‘say, from the specimens you have already given, that they are ‘*convincing* ones indeed.’—‘I have but one,’ said the vicar; ‘how far it may be *convincing* the company shall judge. I ‘maintain then that Callimachus could not have stolen an ex‘pression from the writer of the Acts of the Apostles for the best ‘of reasons, as the former lived above 200 years before the ‘latter was born.—Judgment, gentlemen; is my argument ‘*conclusive?*’ A loud burst of laughter clearly decided in favour of the vicar; and the two doctors, during the remainder of the visit, did not feel themselves in the most comfortable situation. Such will always be the consequence when an acquaintance with *words* is opposed to *real knowledge*.

With respect to education in this country, a stupid Asiatic *permanency* seems to be preferred by the greater number to the most desirable *revolution*; and, to please them, the mind must be fed with musty acorns, which have been gathered two or three hundred years ago, instead of wholesome food. The despotism of *habit* is wonderful; what we have been accustomed to becomes assimilated with our nature, and, however detrimental, all the powers of reason often combat it in vain. A stronger instance cannot be produced of this despotism than an exhibition which takes place every year in one of the first seminaries of this kingdom. Numbers of the chief personages, both in church and state, assemble to hear the youth give marks of their diligence and proficiency; after which they are encouraged to go round the company, like common beggars, and every man drops his

his alms into the cap of the young mendicant, though it is known, by the experience of years, we may say, of ages, that the money thus collected is to be spent in riot and debauchery. Thus is the young mind degraded by those who should be the guardians of public virtue—an absurd and pernicious custom gives a sanction to meanness and vice, for no better reason than because it is a custom.

But, with regard to a reform in education, long-established *custom* is not the only obstacle in the way. The immense establishments which have been formed upon the old plan give a weight and influence to the members of these establishments which they throw into the anti-reforming scale. Possessed of consequence and high emoluments, they dread, and they oppose all change, while, from their situation, and the nature of our government, their opposition will always have great effect. This, with the little attention paid to a matter of such high importance by the legislature, give but small hopes of a speedy reformation: but the progress of society has already had some effect, and will perhaps gradually remedy the evil. In the meanwhile, we subjoin a short specimen of Dr. Priestley's Essay, in hopes that it will induce our readers to peruse the whole, and seriously to examine a subject where all are so intimately concerned:

'It seems to be a defect in our present system of public education, that a proper course of studies is not provided for gentlemen who are designed to fill the principal stations of *active life*, distinct from those which are adapted to the *learned professions*. We have hardly any medium between an education for the compting-house, consisting of writing, arithmetic, and merchants'-accompts, and a method of institution in the abstract sciences: so that we have nothing liberal that is worth the attention of gentlemen, whose views neither of these two opposite plans may suit.

'Formerly none but the clergy were thought to have any occasion for learning. It was natural, therefore, that the whole plan of education, from the grammar-school to the finishing at the university, should be calculated for their use. If a few other persons, who were not designed for holy orders, offered themselves for education, it could not be expected that a course of studies should be provided for them only. And, indeed, as all those persons who superintended the business of education were of the clerical order, and had themselves been taught nothing but the rhetoric, logic, and school-divinity, or civil law, which comprised the whole compass of human learning for several centuries, it could not be expected that they should entertain larger or more liberal views of education; and still less that they should strike out a course of study for the use of men who were universally thought to have no need of study; and of whom few were so sensible of their own wants as to desire any such advantage.

'Besides, in those days the great ends of human society seem to have been but little understood. Men of the greatest rank, fortune, and

and influence, and who took the lead in all the affairs of ſtate, had no idea of the great objects of wiſe and extenſive policy; and therefore could never apprehend that any fund of knowledge was requiſite for the moſt eminent ſtations in the community. Few perſons imagined what were the true ſources of wealth, power, and happineſs, in a nation. Commerce was little underſtood, or even attended to; and ſo ſlight was the connexion of the different nations of Europe, that general politics were very contracted. And thus, men's views being narrow, little previous furniture of mind was requiſite to conduct them.

'The conſequence of all this was, that the advances which were made to a more perfect and improved ſtate of ſociety were very ſlow; and the preſent happier ſtate of things was brought about, rather by an accidental concurrence of circumſtances, than by any efforts of human wiſdom and foreſight. We ſee the hand of Divine Providence in thoſe revolutions which have gradually given a happier turn to affairs, while men have been the paſſive and blind inſtruments of their own felicity.

'But the ſituation of things at preſent is vaſtly different from what it was two or three centuries ago. The objects of human attention are prodigiouſly multiplied; the connexions of ſtates are extended; a reflection upon our preſent advantages, and the ſteps by which we have arrived to the degree of power and happineſs we now enjoy, has ſhewn us the true ſources of them; and ſo thoroughly awakened are all the ſtates of Europe to a ſenſe of their true intereſts, that we are convinced the ſame ſupine inattention with which affairs were formerly conducted is no longer ſafe; and that, without ſuperior degrees of wiſdom and vigour in political meaſures, every thing we have hitherto gained will infallibly be loſt, and be quickly transferred to our more intelligent and vigilant neighbours. In this critical poſture of affairs, more lights, and ſuperior induſtry, are requiſite, both to miniſters of ſtate, and to all perſons who have any influence in ſchemes of public and national advantage; and conſequently a different and a better furniture of mind is requiſite to be brought into the buſineſs of life.

'This is certainly a call upon us to examine the ſtate of *education* in this country, and to conſider how thoſe years are employed which men paſs previous to their entering into the world; for upon this their future behaviour and ſucceſs muſt in a great meaſure depend. A tranſition, which is not eaſy, can never be made with advantage; and therefore it is certainly our wiſdom to contrive that the ſtudies of youth ſhould tend to fit them for the buſineſs of manhood; and that the objects of their attention, and turn of thinking in younger life, ſhould not be too remote from the deſtined employment of their riper years. If this be not attended to, they muſt neceſſarily be mere novices upon entering the great world, be almoſt unavoidably embarraſſed in their conduct, and, after all the time and expence beſtowed upon their education, be indebted to a ſeries of blunders for the moſt uſeful knowledge they will ever acquire.'

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The whole Essay is highly worthy of attention; and to those who imagine (though we think falsely) that it contains views injurious to their interests, we can only say *fas est et ab hoste doceri.*

To conclude, the author, in this volume, has collected from every quarter whatever could tend to make his work, what we really think it, a most useful publication. It is with regret we add, *si sic omnia.* There are some inaccuracies in the language, and in general the diction does not seem to have been much attended to; but it is sufficiently perspicuous.

ART. II. *A Treatise on Practical Astronomy. By the Rev. S. Vince, A. M. F. R. S.* 4to. 18s. sewed. Cambridge, printed: Cadell, London. 1790.

THIS work is suited to the practical genius of the English nation. Though science has fallen from its former dignity and importance, this country still maintains its preeminence in the arts. Within these thirty years vast improvements have been introduced into the astronomical instruments, and the mode of conducting observations has been almost totally changed. Partial descriptions have been occasionally published; but a treatise, which contained a complete detail of the implements of a modern observatory, was still wanting. Mr. Vince has undertaken this task, and performed it with great judgment. His descriptions are simple, clear, and popular, and his directions and remarks are diffuse, and even minute. He explains the principle of the construction of the instruments, and details their uses and adjustments. He has availed himself of the assistance of Dr. Maskelyne and Mr. Ramsden, and has rendered his descriptions, by means of accurate engravings, intelligible even to those persons who have not had the fortune to see the instruments.

In Chap. I. Mr. Vince explains the curious contrivance of Vernier or Nonius, by which minute portions are measured by the differences of proximate scales. His account seems to be rather inaccurate. The principle is this: If the unit of the fundamental scale be divided into n parts, and $m+1$ of these parts be divided by m, it is evident that each of these will exceed the former by $\frac{1}{mn}$; or the original parts will virtually be subdivided by m. In his illustration, Mr. Vince supposes that the product of 24 by 25 is 500 instead of 600. This remark would be too minute, had not the author selected the example for a particular purpose, and repeated the mistake.

In Chap. II. he treats of Hadley's quadrant. This most beautiful and useful instrument was first constructed about the year

year 1730. The inaccuracy of the foreſtaff, and of Davis's quadrant, had long been felt; and the difficulty of obſerving at ſea was conſidered as a barrier to the diſcovery of longitude. Sir Iſaac Newton, Dr. Wallis, and Sir Chriſtopher Wren, diſcovered, towards the end of laſt century, the principle which Mr. Hadley employed in conſtructing his quadrant. The reflecting teleſcope enjoyed the ſame ſingular fortune. It was invented in 1670 by Mr. James Gregory, but was firſt conſtructed above ſixty years afterwards by his countryman Mr. Short. The diſcovery of Hadley's quadrant has been claimed by the Americans. An ingenious New-Englander, it is ſaid, conſtructed by himſelf an inſtrument of this kind at ſea. Hadley's quadrant depends upon a curious optical principle. An incident ray of light makes with the ſame ray, after a double reflection, an angle equal to twice the inclination of the mirrors. In the *fore* obſervation the angle which the mirrors make with each other is acute; in the *back* obſervation it is obtuſe. In meaſuring the angle ſubtended by near objects, a ſmall correction muſt be made for the diſtance of the mirrors from each other. But when the objects are remote, their poſition with regard to each of the glaſſes may be conſidered as abſolutely the ſame. Mr. Vince gives very full directions for the uſe and adjuſtment of this inſtrument. Many of theſe would naturally occur to the intelligent obſerver. The back obſervation is the moſt liable to error, and its adjuſtment the moſt difficult. Other methods of correcting it have lately been propoſed by Mr. Dollond and Mr. Blair. Our author then gives directions for taking the altitude of the ſun, moon, or ſtars, at ſea, by the fore and back obſervations; alſo their diſtances and their altitude at land, by means of what is termed an artificial horizon. In determining the time from equal altitudes, the author propoſes a neat formula. Let $t =$ the tangent of the latitude, $v =$ the tangent of the declination, $s =$ the ſine, and $r =$ the longeſt, of the hour angle from noon, and $d =$ the temporary variation of declination; the correction is $\frac{1}{2} d \left(\frac{t}{s} \pm \frac{v}{r}\right)$. He cloſes with a ſhort, diſtinct account of the method of diſcovering longitude at ſea by the diſtance of the moon from the ſun or a fixed ſtar. Dr. Maſkelyne, our preſent aſtronomer royal, was the firſt who, by his ingenuity and induſtry, properly reduced it to practice.

In Chap. III. Mr. Vince treats minutely of the teleſcopic wires. If theſe be parallel and vertical, the time of the paſſage of a heavenly body is inverſely as the coſine of the zenith diſtance. From this principle, the time of the central tranſit of the ſun may be determined; it may alſo be diſcovered by obſerving the approach of the one limb to the ſeveral wires, and afterwards the

the recession of the other. It is more difficult to ascertain the passage of the moon, owing to her parallax, the irregularity of her motions, and the variation of her aspect. Dr. Maskelyne has, however, given a formula for this purpose. The motion of a heavenly body in the field of a telescope is not exactly parallel to the horizontal wire, for it is affected by the change of declination and of refraction. The quantity of refraction besides varies with the density and temperature of the atmosphere. If b denote the temperature in degrees of Farenheit, a the altitude of the mercury of the barometer in inches, z the zenith distance, and r the tabular refraction, it is found partly from experience, and partly from induction, that the *true* refraction is $\frac{475' \times a \times tang^2.z - 3r}{37b + 12950}$. Mr. Vince deduces several formulæ for correcting the errors in the right ascension, occasioned by the irregular motion of the stars over the cross wires of the instrument.

Chap. IV. is occupied about the transit telescope. This instrument is dioptric; it has only one eye-glass, which is convex; and hence it inverts the objects. It is connected to an horizontal axis, and so adjusted as to move in the plane of the meridian. Its principal use is to determine the right ascensions of the heavenly bodies, and to correct the motion of the clock. The first adjustment is to place the axis parallel to the horizon. This may be done by the spirit level, by the plumb line, or by observing if the pole star and its reflected image appear on the same wire. If the telescope be at right angles to the axis, an object must appear in the same position after the instrument is inverted, and the wires must be moved till this take place. The next adjustment is to make the line of collimation move in the plane of the meridian. This may be ascertained by observing when the intervals of time between the transits of a circumpolar star, above and below the pole, are equal, or when those of two known stars, differing considerably in declination, are equal to their difference of right ascensions in time. At night the wires are commonly illuminated by means of a lamp attached to the extremity of the telescope, the light of which is reflected down the tube. Mr. Ramsden makes the axis hollow and open at one end, where he places the lamp, and within the telescope he fixes a perforated plane mirror, making an angle of 45° with the tube. Mr. Vince describes the uses of the instrument for regulating the clock, and for determining the meridian transits, and the right ascensions of the fixed stars.

In Chap. V. our author considers the astronomical quadrant. The telescope is moveable, and contains a system of wires in the principal focus of the object-glass. The limb is extended a few

few degrees for adjuſting the line of collimation, and can be ſubdivided into ſeconds by means of a micrometer ſcrew. The quadrant is firſt placed in a vertical poſition by means of the ſpirit level or plumb line. The difference between the arc and 90°, or the correction of collimation, may be found by inverting the inſtrument, or more conveniently, by means of the zenith ſector or adjuſting teleſcope. The limb conſiſts of two graduations; the inner into 90 equal parts, the outer into 96. Mr. Vince gives a particular detail of the uſe of the inſtruments, and introduces a rule of Dr. Maſkelyne's for determining the latitude and longitude of a ſtar from its right aſcenſion and declination, which, for its neatneſs and ſimplicity, deſerves a place here. 1. let log. ſin. r^t. aſcen. + log. cotang. decl. = log. cotang. A. 2. put arc. A + obl. eclip. = B. 3. arith. comp. cos, A + cos, B + tan. r^t. aſcen. = tan. *longitude.* and 4. log. ſin. long. + tang. B = tan. *latitude.*

In Chap. VI. Mr. Vince deſcribes the contrivances for meaſuring the apparent diameters of the planets, and the angular diſtance of the objects which come into the field of view. The celebrated Huygens firſt placed, in the principal focus of the object-glaſs and perpendicular to the central wire, two plates, whoſe edges were parallel and well defined. To theſe were afterwards ſubſtituted two parallel wires. The micrometer, as it is at preſent conſtructed, conſiſts of a ſyſtem of parallel and equidiſtant wires; by which means the angular diſtance of the heavenly bodies, which paſs ſucceſſively through the field of view, can be determined, and thence their declination and right aſcenſion. Mr. Savery ſuggeſted the idea of forming two images, which was adopted and improved by Mr. Dollond. The object-glaſs is divided into two ſegments, in a line drawn through the centre, and each is fixed to a ſeparate moveable frame of braſs. Hence the angular diſtance of two diſtant points will be found by ſeparating the ſegments till the two images coincide; and thus any diameter of an object, whatever be its inclination to the direction of the apparent motion, may be determined with equal eaſe and accuracy. This contrivance may alſo be applied to diſcover the difference of declinations and right aſcenſions, and alſo to aſcertain the place of a planet on the ſun's diſc. But the object-glaſs micrometer, however valuable, is attended with ſome inconveniencies, ariſing from the variation in the ſtate of the eye of the obſerver. Dr. Maſkelyne has been led to the diſcovery of a new contrivance, which is very ingenious. He does not alter the object-glaſs, but places two very acute glaſs priſms between it and the principal focus. The divarication of the two images that are formed is evidently proportional to the diſtance of the priſms from the focus. The difficulty was to

determine

determine the beginning of the scale, because the angle vanished when the prisms were placed in the focus. Dr. Maskelyne afterwards divided the object-glass, and sliding the segments a little, he separated the images, and, by means of the prisms, formed one distinct image, and thus fixed the commencement of the scale. Mr. Herschel has applied what he calls a *lamp* micrometer to Sir Isaac Newton's reflecting telescope.

In Chap. VII. Mr. Vince describes the equatorial sector, and explains its various adjustments. This instrument was first constructed by Mr. Graham, and afterwards improved by Dr. Maskelyne. Its axis is parallel to that of the earth, and the telescope fixed to it admits of any degree of elevation; and hence it is admirably fitted for observing the declination and right ascension of the stars.

The zenith sector was first constructed by Dr. Hook to measure small angular distances from the zenith, with the view of discovering the parallax of the fixed stars; but though the tube was thirty-six feet in length, it was found liable to an error of 30". Afterwards, Dr. Bradley made, upon nearly the same principles, an instrument only 12½ long, but the error of which did not amount to half a second. With this he began in 1725 to observe γ *Draconis*, and, after a course of twenty years observations, he made the wonderful discoveries of the nutation of the earth's axis, and the aberration of light.

In Chap. VIII, our author describes very particularly the equatorial telescope, constructed about the year 1749 by Mr. Short. The instrument is extremely complicated, susceptible of a variety of movements, and requires numerous adjustments. It is fitted for almost every purpose, and may be considered as a compendium of astronomical apparatus.

In Chap. IX, we have an account of the instrument lately invented by Mr. Ramsden for measuring horizontal angles. In the year 1785, in consequence of a memorial presented by the French ambassador, stating the uncertainty of the longitudes of the observations of Paris and Greenwich, and the importance of ascertaining the difference with accuracy, his majesty ordered the measurement to Dover to be carried on and completed at his own expence, and under the direction of the Royal Society of London. General Roy was appointed to conduct the business; and, upon this occasion, Mr. Ramsden constructed, on a new principle, an instrument of extreme accuracy. The General, in an account of his operations read at the late meetings of the Society, has given a very minute detail. We shall therefore have a better opportunity afterwards of describing the instrument. It was found that the difference of the meridians

of Paris and Greenwich was 9′ 20″, in time the ſame with what Dr. Maſkelyne had before determined.

Chap. X. contains a particular deſcription and an account of the adjuſtments of Mr. Ramſden's new circular inſtrument, which is much more complete than the mural quadrant, and not liable to the ſame defects. It can both meaſure azimuths and altitudes; it is capable of a more accurate diviſion; it is not ſubject to the errors of centre work, and it is not affected by the change of poſition.

Mr. Vince next proceeds to give directions for obſerving, with the common teleſcope, the tranſits of Mercury and Venus over the ſun's diſc, the eclipſes of Jupiter's ſatellites, and thoſe of the ſun and moon. He concludes with a ſhort account of the doctrine of the interpolation of ſerieſes, and illuſtrates, by examples, its application to aſtronomical obſervations. In a word, this treatiſe muſt be conſidered very complete, and highly uſeful to practical obſervers.

ART. III. *A new Engliſh Tranſlation of the Pentateuch; being a thorough Correction of the preſent Tranſlation wherever it deviates from the genuine Senſe of the Hebrew Expreſſions, or where it renders obſcure the Meaning of the Text; or, laſtly, when it occaſions a ſeeming Contradiction; proving the Validity of ſuch Emendations by critical Remarks and Illuſtrations, grounded on other Inſtances in Scripture where the like Words or Phraſes occur; together with a Comment on ſuch Paſſages as cannot be ſufficiently underſtood by a mere Tranſlation. Being a Work highly uſeful, and never before attempted. By Iſaac Delgado, Teacher of the Hebrew Language.* 4to. 10s. boards. Richardſon. London, 1789.

AFTER this copious title-page our readers will hardly require of us any account of the deſign of the work. In the preface the author, we conceive, means to explain to us what he means by *a work never before attempted*, viz. that in moſt of the family bibles the commentators, as Young complains,

> 'Each dark paſſage ſhun,
> And hold a farthing candle to the ſun.'

Mr. Delgado next gives his Engliſh reader a ſtatement of ſome peculiarities in the Hebrew language, which are more than ſufficient to account for the great variety of opinions in different writers. He likewiſe inſtances ſome modes of expreſſion almoſt-

confined

confined to the ſacred text, the want of attention to, or knowledge of which, has led many tranſlators into ſeeming contradictions. After this he explains the plan he means to adopt in his own work, of conſulting, *wherever he finds himſelf deficient*, the moſt eminent Hebrew expoſitors; and where he meets with nothing ſatisfactory in them, he will leave the paſſage as unintelligible. 'But,' ſays our author,

'I will never avail myſelf of that *pernicious* method of ſuppoſing an error in ſcripture, committed by tranſcribers after the compilation of the Bible by Ezra and his ſynod, who faithfully handed it down to us as they found it, without venturing to alter a ſingle letter, and was ſince preſerved by the Maſſorites as pure as they received it, which will be proved by my obſervations on Joſhua, chap. xxi. ver. 36. And it is worthy of notice, that all over the world, wherever there is a congregation of Jews, there is not any material difference in their Hebrew Bibles. But to pretend to correct the original Hebrew by the different readings found in manuſcripts lodged in private hands, which may have received many alterations by being copied from other manuſcripts (in which ſome annotations, having been interlined, may have been introduced into the text), I think it prophane, as it would give us a ſpurious copy, inſtead of a divine narrative. However, I cannot deny that there are ſome apparent errors in ſcripture, but am firmly perſuaded that they have been ſo *ab origine*, I mean before the compilation of the Bible by Ezra, and not committed ſince by tranſcribers: but this refers only to the reſt of the Bible, excluſive of the Pentateuch, which was written by Moſes; therefore I cannot admit any error in it: beſides, they are kept in the ſynagogues to be read weekly; and every copy is carefully examined, that there be not a letter too much nor any miſſing in it; and, if an error is found at the time of its being read, it is laid aſide, and another is taken out, and the firſt is given to a ſcribe to correct it; ſo that it ſeems to me almoſt impoſſible that there ſhould be any error in it; whereas the other parts of the Bible, we do not know to a certainty who wrote them; for ſeveral of thoſe books were certainly not written by thoſe whoſe names they bear. And, notwithſtanding that I admit of ſome ſuppoſed errors in ſcripture *ab origine*, before Ezra, yet I am not clear that they were committed by inadvertency or miſtake, thinking rather that they are purpoſely introduced to give us ſome farther information than what the letter expreſſes, though we may not be able, at this diſtance of time, to penetrate what it may be.'

We would willingly ſuppoſe ſcripture to have been originally written in ſuch a manner as that every thing of ſufficient importance to our duty was eaſily underſtood by all. We may ſay the ſame of every paſſage of holy writ, even in theſe days. But, without ſuppoſing a conſtant ſuperintendant miracle, we can hardly conceive, circumſtanced as the Jews have been at different periods, that all their congregational copies are perfect.

Indeed it is well known they have not been all exactly ſimilar. We cannot, therefore, help thinking that the world is under many obligations to the induſtrious Dr. Kennicot, who firſt had the courage to adopt the mode of giving us a correct copy of the Bible by comparing different readings. And we look with much impatience for the reſult of Dr. Geddes's labours in this moſt important branch of literature. We ought to obſerve too that Mr. Delgado refers his arguments on this ſubject to his notes on Joſhua. Now the preſent performance, containing only the five books of Moſes, we are left in the dark as to theſe arguments till his ſecond volume appears. Till we ſee them produced we ſhall not be afraid to aſſert that, notwithſtanding the confidence of Mr. Delgado's aſſertion relative to the Pentateuch, there is ſufficient internal evidence to ſhew that though Ezra might be aſſiſted by the Holy Spirit in his compilation, and though there is no reaſon to doubt the faithfulneſs of it, yet that in many parts he has not confined himſelf to the exact words of Moſes. To ſuch as wiſh for a fair ſtatement of this important queſtion, we recommend a peruſal of Dr. Prideaux's Connexion of the Old and New Teſtament.

We need hardly obſerve to our readers that the paſſage we have preſented to them is liable to other objections. For want of a cloſe grammatical conſtruction, it is impoſſible to know whether Ezra and his ſynod, or the ſubſequent tranſcribers, are ſuppoſed to be thus faithful in handing down the ſcriptures; we can trace no nominative to the verb '*was* preſerved,' and the reſt of the ſentence is extremely confuſed. The author indeed makes an apology for the *uncouthneſs* of his language; but this does not excuſe incorrectneſs; and as Dr. Owen, among others, adviſed the publication, we ſincerely wiſh he had lent his aſſiſtance in correcting the Engliſh.

The work itſelf is undoubtedly entitled to no inconſiderable ſhare of praiſe. To give our opinion of many of the emendations would be more than is expected of us, or than our limits would admit. Suffice it to ſay, the whole is evidently the work of much labour; and we recommend it as an uſeful addition to biblial knowledge. We have ſelected the following paſſages as ſpecimens of the work, and becauſe we think in them our author's remarks will admit of a further commentary. The reader will obſerve, only ſo much of the old tranſlation is given as the author has thought it neceſſary to amend, or to make obſervations upon:

'*New*

'*New Translation.*

CHAP. IX.

'2——SHALL be upon every beast of the earth, and upon every fowl of the air [*and you shall have dominion*]; *over* all that moveth upon the earth, and *over* all the fishes of the sea; *for* into your hands are they delivered.

'10 And with every living creature that is with you, *both* the fowl, the cattle, and every beast of the earth, with you, *even* all *the wild beasts* of the earth, *being all that came out of the ark.*

'12 This is the token of the covenant which I put between me and you, &c.

'*Old Translation.*

CHAP. IX.

'2 AND the fear of you and the dread of you shall be upon every beast of the earth, and upon every fowl of the air, upon all that moveth upon the earth, and upon all the fishes of the sea; into your hand are they delivered.

'5 And surely your blood of your lives will I require; at the hand of every beast will I require it; and at the hand of man, at the hand of every man's brother, will I require the life of man.

'10 And with every living creature that is with you, of the fowl, of the cattle, and of every beast of the earth, with you; from all that go out of the ark, to every beast of the earth.

'12 And God said, This is the token of the covenant which I make between me and you, and every living creature that is with you, for perpetual generations.

'OBSERVATIONS on CHAP. IX.

'2 The two first prepositions, *upon*, are governed by the sentence, *and the fear of you, &c. shall be*—; but the two last, *over*, have no verb to be governed by; therefore I thought it necessary to make an addition, in this verse, of the verb *and you shall have dominion*, which is certainly understood; and this preposition is proper to this verb. Vide Hebrew expression in chap. i. v. 16 and ver. 18.

'3, 4. Here a permission is given them to kill beasts for their food, which is another indication of the remission of Adam's sin.

'5 From the first part of this verse the crime of suicide and its punishment, I think, may be fairly deduced; and, if so, the immortality of the soul is proved from scripture. [Happily for Christians they have proofs from *scripture* less ambiguous than this.]

'10 By the translation of the English Bible it appears as if the last-mentioned beasts of the earth had not come out of the ark, which is absurd; and therefore I made a transposition in this verse, calling this last *wild beasts*, because to the first the words *with you* are added, which I suppose means *tame beasts*.

'12 The verb, *which I put*, refers to the token, not to the covenant; therefore, *which I make* is wrong, and the Hebrew verb נתן is *to put*.'

New Translation.	*Old Translation.*
CHAP. XVI.	CHAP. XVI.
2 ——GO in *now* unto my handmaid; it may be that I may obtain children by her, &c.	2 AND Sarai said unto Abram, Behold, now the Lord hath restrained me from bearing: I pray thee go in unto my maid; it may be that I may obtain children by her: and Abram hearkened to the voice of Sarai.
12 And he shall be a wild man; his hand shall be *in all*, and the hand of all shall be *in* him, and he shall dwell in the presence of all his brethren.	12 And he will be a wild man; his hand will be against every man, and every man's hand against him: and he shall dwell in the presence of all his brethren.
13 Thou *art the* God that seest me: for, she said, Have I also *thus far seen him* after seeing me?	13 And she called the name of the Lord that spake unto her, Thou, God, seest me; for she said, Have I also here looked after him that seeth me?

OBSERVATIONS on CHAP. XVI.

2 I take this to be rather a condescension than an entreaty, as the translation of the English Bible seems to imply; for, if so, she had no reason to complain against her husband, as in v. 5.

8 This is merely by way of introduction to a discourse, as observed before; for the angel knew very well every thing concerning her.

12 This verse is not intelligible; therefore I think that the preposition ל should be rendered in its first natural meaning, which is *in*.

Note. The Ishmaelites or Hagarites, were situated in the neighbourhood of Egypt, and the Egyptians were her brethren, agreeably to this prediction.

13 She called the name of the angel *El Roi*, which gave rise to the name of the well; and this speech of hers means a surprise of her seeing there the glory of the Lord (as she was accustomed to see it at Abram's house), now that God saw her affliction; for the meaning of *seeing me* is, 'in my affliction.'

We leave it to our readers to determine whether Mr. Delgado's mode of rendering the twelfth verse adds any thing to its perspicuity. The subsequent note is ingenious and well introduced.

These specimens are sufficient to shew the plan of this useful performance. We heartily wish the author encouragement to pursue his undertaking, and hope, as a foreigner, he will not be ashamed of asking the assistance of his friends in correcting, if not polishing his language.

ART.

ART. IV. *Philoſophical Tranſactions of the Royal Society of London, Vol. LXXVIII. For the Year 1787. Part I.* 4to. 8s. 6d. ſewed. Davis. London, 1788.

Art. I. OF the Methods of manifeſting the Preſence, and aſcertaining the Quality, of ſmall Quantities of Natural or Artificial Electricity. By Mr. Tiberius Cavallo, F. R. S. Mr. Cavallo juſtly obſerves that, notwithſtanding the amazing diſcoveries made in electricity, the ſcience is ſtill in its infant ſtate. We can reaſon vaguely about ſome ſtriking phenomena, but, with regard to the intimate nature and mode of operation, we are ſtill in the dark. To promote our inquiries, we ought to examine the electrical power in its incipient ſtate, when its effects are minute, and do not ſtrike the ſenſes. Various inſtruments have been propoſed for this purpoſe. Mr. Canton was the firſt who conſtructed an *electrometer*. It conſiſted of two ſmall balls of the pith of elder or cork, faſtened to the extremities of a linen thread. Mr. Cavallo improved the ſenſibility of the electrometer by contracting its ſize. He ſuſpended each ball by a ſeparate thread, and, to avoid the twiſting, he afterwards ſubſtituted fine ſilver wires. The inſtrument was ſcreened from the diſturbance of the wind, by being incloſed in a bottle, and was found to anſwer remarkably well. M. de Sauſſure has made ſeveral alterations, but does not ſeem to have improved the conſtruction. The pith balls are inferior to the conical corks, becauſe they are more apt to cohere, and, having leſs ſurface, do not exert ſo great a repulſion. Mr. Bennet employed two ſlips of gold leaf; by which conſtruction the bottle electrometer is more ſenſible, but at the ſame time it is leſs portable, and more eaſily ſpoiled. But beſide delicate electrometers, other inſtruments have been invented, by which ſmall quantities of electricity are made manifeſt. Theſe are M. Volta's *condenser of electricity*, and Mr. Bennet's *doubler of electricity*. In the *condencer*, the electricity to be examined is communicated to a flat, ſmooth metal plate, reſting upon a ſemi-conducting plane. The capacity of the plate for the electrical fluid is increaſed by this poſition, and it manifeſts ſtrong indications, when removed by an inſulating handle. This apparatus, therefore, does not detect a minute quantity of electricity, but only condenſes an expanded quantity of the fluid. Mr. Bennet's *doubler* conſiſts of three braſs plates, of about three or four inches diameter; the firſt is thinly varniſhed on its upper ſurface, the third on its under, and the ſecond on both. The electricity is communicated to the under ſurface of the firſt plate, and the ſecond is placed upon it. The varniſhing of the plates

prevents their contact and the consequent equilibrium of the fluid, but allows them to enter each other's atmospheres. The second plate will therefore acquire the opposite electricity to the first, and, if it be touched with a finger, it will possess it in the same intensity. The second plate is then removed, and the third applied to it, which thus acquires the same electricity with the first. The second plate is now placed between the first and third, and, by this position, acquires an opposite electricity equal in intensity to both, and therefore double of the first. By proceeding in this way, the electricity will be continually doubled and multiplied prodigiously. But even when no electricity has been previously communicated, the apparatus, after twenty or thirty operations, will become strongly electrified. This may naturally be attributed to the friction of the varnish of the plates, and, to avoid it, Mr. Cavallo constructed three plates without the least varnish, but which could stand within an eighth of an inch of each other, upon glass sticks covered with sealing-wax. But he was surprised to find that these laboured under the same defect. Without any previous communication of electricity, they would afford sparks, after doubling ten, fifteen, or at most twenty times. All his endeavours to deprive them of electricity were ineffectual. Even after remaining for a month untouched, during which time they were connected with the ground by means of good conductors, they were still found to give the same indications. Sometimes the electricity exhibited was positive, at other times negative. In short, difficulty and uncertainty obtrude upon our inquiries; and the doubler of Mr. Bennet, though very ingenious, is not altogether to be depended upon. It appears, from Mr. Cavallo's experiments, that the electrical equilibrium which subsists among connected bodies does not obtain in a very accurate degree, and that the tendency of the fluid to diffuse itself is diminished with the intensity. In the conclusion of the paper, Mr. Cavallo hints at the explanation of the production of electricity by friction. The cylinder, he conceives, always retains some positive electricity, and the cushion, from its proximity, becomes negative. When another part of the cylinder is applied, it becomes more strongly positively electrified, from the reaction of the cushion; and thus, as the parts of the cylinder come successively into contact, they receive electricity from the lowest part of the rubber, and afterwards, when their capacity is diminished, they readily part with it. Hence the under part of the rubber is covered with amalgam, and the upper is furnished with a piece of silk. The idea is plausible and extremely ingenious.

Art. II. The Croonian Lecture on Muscular Motion. By George Fordyce, M.D. F.R.S. The subject of muscular motion

motion is naturally involved in obscurity, and eludes the keenness of human research. A few curious facts have been observed; but from these, conclusions have been drawn at once puerile and absurd. Dr. George Fordyce very properly apologises for the trite remarks which the annual discussion of the subject obliges him to make. He talks of the *vis inertiæ* of matter, the communication of motion, &c. He mentions the theories of nervous fluid, of the vibration of the nerves, of æther, &c. and properly treats them as chimeras. He points out several instances where stimuli produce action in parts at a distance, without any communication of motion by the nerves. The muscles in the living body are always in a state of contraction; and this principle he terms the *attraction of life*. He illustrates spasm by means of magnets; but takes care to inform us in a note that he is no abettor of animal magnetism. He next gives a short view of the progress of medicine. He seems to insinuate that several alterations introduced into the practice of physic, by reasoning from the modern anatomical discoveries, were improper.

Art. III. An Account of a Mass of native Iron found in South-America. By Don Michael Rubin de Celis. Communicated by Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. F. R. S. This letter is curious and interesting. It contains a short description of the face of the country, and of the manners of those roving Indians who spend their gloomy lives in the search of wild honey in the impenetrable forests of America. But the most extraordinary fact is the discovery of an amazing mass of native iron in a wide extended plain, at a distance from mountains and mines, and in a country where the degraded natives have never been acquainted with that useful metal. Don Celis examined it in February 1783. The exterior appearance was perfectly compact, marked with various impressions; the interior was full of cavities, and seemed to have been formerly in a liquid state; and he infers that it was produced by a volcano. He mentions that many of the Indians have seen, in another part of the country, a mass of pure iron, with the shape and ramifications of a tree. Some specimens of the native iron accompanied this paper, and were laid before the Royal Society, who afterwards presented them to the British Museum.

Art. IV. Frigorific Experiments on the Mechanical Expansion of Air; explaining the Cause of the great Degree of Cold on the Summits of high Mountains, the sudden Condensation of Aerial Vapour, and of the perpetual Mutability of Atmospheric Heat. By Erasmus Darwin, M. D. F. R. S. Communicated by the Right Hon. Charles Greville, F. R. S. Reflecting upon the production of cold by evaporation, Dr. Darwin was led to imagine that elastic fluids, when expanded, would absorb heat from

from the adjacent bodies, which they would give out, if again mechanically condenſed. This principle he conceived might be extended to elaſtic ſolids, and explain the origin of heat from percuſſion or friction. He confirmed his idea by the following experiments: 1. The blaſt from an air-gun, diſcharged upon the bulb of a thermometer, ſunk it 5°. 2. A thermometer was placed in the receiver of an air-pump, and, upon exhauſting the air, the mercury ſunk 2° or 3°, and, after ſome minutes, gradually recovered its previous height. 3. A thermometer ſunk 4° when expoſed to a ſtream of condenſed air from the air-veſſel of a water-engine. Similar to theſe is a curious phenomenon obſerved in the fountain of Hiero, in the mines of Hungary. The air is compreſſed in a large veſſel by a column of water 260 feet high, a ſtop-cock is opened, the condenſed air is expelled with aſtoniſhing force, and diſperſes the moiſture it contained in a ſhower of ſnow, with icicles adhering to the noſel of the cock.

From theſe intereſting experiments we may conclude that the capacity of air for heat is proportioned to its rarity. This curious principle admits of a beautiful application to the explanation of ſeveral important points in meteorology. Hence perhaps the cold obſerved in the ſuperior regions of the atmoſphere. As the warm air from below aſcends, it gradually expands, part of its heat becomes latent, and intenſe cold is produced. The chill air from the ſummits of the Andes evolves its concealed warmth as it deſcends and is condenſed upon the fertile plains of Quito. Hence alſo the reaſon, why in winter the cold increaſes while the mercury in the barometer deſcends; for the air being then expanded, its capacity for heat is enlarged, and it robs the contiguous bodies of their warmth. The ſame principle explains the precipitation of moiſture, and accounts for a curious circumſtance in the famous ſteam engine of Meſſrs. Watt and Bolton. The Doctor concludes this ingenious paper with ſome remarks on the cauſe of winds.

Art. V. Some Obſevrations on the Heat of Wells and Springs in the Iſland of Jamaica, and on the Temperature of the Earth below the Surface in different Climates. By John Hunter, M.D. F.R.S. Communicated by the Hon. Henry Cavendiſh, F.R.S. It has long been obſerved that the temperature of deep caverns and mines is equal and conſtant, and not affected by the cauſes which produce thoſe viciſſitudes of heat and cold upon the ſurface. To explain the cauſe of this phenomenon, the ancients had recourſe to the ſuppoſition of a central fire. Many of the moderns have adopted the ſame hypotheſis, and the celebrated Buffon has adorned it with the flowers of eloquence. Mairan ſuppoſes that of the ſummer heat of Paris 992°, by Reaumur's

Reaumur's ſcale, proceed from the earth, and only the thirtieth part, or 34°, from the ſun. But this concluſion is contrary to general experience, and totally inadmiſſable. The phenomenon may be accounted for by cauſes that are well aſcertained. In paſſing through the atmoſphere, the ſolar rays meet with little obſtruction, and ſcarcely communicate any heat. At the ſurface of the earth the lucid particles are abſorbed, and warmth is powerfully excited and gradually communicated to the contiguous matter. The air quickly abſorbs the heat, and, by its increaſed elaſticity and conſequent motions, uniformly diffuſes it. But the heat penetrates ſlowly through the ſpongy maſs of the earth; the variations which take place at the ſurface are confounded and intermingled before their effects penetrate to any conſiderable depth; and the temperature produced becomes an indication of the average ſtate of the climate. Dr. Hunter brings a further confirmation of theſe principles by the experiments made during his reſidence in the iſland of Jamaica. The beſt obſervations, he remarks, may be made from wells of a conſiderable depth. Springs are not to be ſo much depended upon. They may derive their ſource from high grounds in the neighbourhood, or they may run ſo near the ſurface as to be influenced by the variations of ſummer and winter. The town of Kingſton is placed upon a gentle aſcent near the ſea, and is ſupplied with water from wells. The heat of the water in theſe was found to be 80°, and not to vary a degree. The temperature of the air ranges in the hotteſt weather from 85° to 90°, and in the coldeſt from 70° to 77°. The medium is the ſame, therefore, with that indicated by the wells. In approaching the mountains, the heat of the ſprings conſtantly diminiſhes. *Cold Spring*, the higheſt in the iſland, and 1400 yards above the level of the ſea, was found to be 62°. Dr. Hunter ſuppoſes the medium heat of London to be 49°½, and of Brighthelmſtone 50°. M. de Mairan found the average at Paris to be 54°½, while the temperature of the cave of the obſervatory was 55°. Mairan ſeems to have founded his calculations upon the ſcale of Reaumur, and to have conſidered the degrees of his thermometer as marking the real proportions of heat, and not the differences. The ſea, from the volubility and conducting power of its waters, admits of a change of temperature, particularly near the ſhore, more quickly than the earth. In the ſouth of England it varies from 71° to 49°. In North America the range of the thermometer is greater perhaps than in any part of the world. In New York the temperature of the wells varies from 54° to 56°.

Art. VI. A Table of the mean Heat of every Month for Ten Years in London, from 1763 to 1772 incluſively. By William Heberden, M.D. F.R.S. It appears, from this table, that

that the order of the months, according to their degrees of heat, are January, December, February, March, November, April, October, May, September, June, July, Auguſt. The greateſt heat at noon is 68°, the leaſt 39°. The difference between the heat of the morning and that of noon is a *maximum* in July, when it is 9°; it is a *minimum* in December, when it is only 3°. The heat ſeems to be nearly ſtationary in February and March, and in June, July, and Auguſt, it increaſes very ſlowly. The ſpring and autumn advance rapidly. In April and May the heat increaſes 7° each month. In September and October it decreaſes as faſt. The medium temperature in the morning is 47°½, at noon 54°.

Art. VII. On Centripetal Forces. By Edward Waring, M.D. F.R.S. Profeſſor of Mathematics at Cambridge. We are ſorry that we cannot do juſtice to the merits of this performance. The abſtract nature of the ſubject, and the abſtruſe manner of treating it, ſet it beyond the reach of the bulk of our readers. Dr. Waring adopts the analytical mode, and treats of the doctrine of centripetal forces upon an extenſive plan. He demonſtrates Kepler's famous law, that equal areas are deſcribed in equal times, from the properties of deflection and the general principles of curvature. He aſcertains the motion of a body urged at the ſame time by forces tending to different centres. He eſtimates the effect of reſiſting media upon progreſſive and curvilineal motions; and concludes the paper with the inveſtigation of the equations of the curves, deſcribed by bodies urged by forces directed towards moveable points. Dr. Waring very properly uſes the foreign language and notation in the fluxionary calculus.

Art. VIII. Experiments on Local Heat. In a Letter from James Six, Eſq. to the Rev. Francis Wollaſton, LL.B. F.R.S. This paper contains a number of important experiments with regard to the diverſity of heat at different altitudes, which are accompanied with pertinent and judicious remarks. In hazy, cloudy, or rainy weather, the temperature of the atmoſphere is, at all times, nearly uniform to a conſiderable height. The ſolar rays do not then penetrate to the ſurface, the air is ſaturated with moiſture; and thus the two great cauſes of the production of heat and cold do not operate. Beſides, the humid air conducts the heat readily, and diffuſes it uniformly. In clear weather, however, when the luminous particles play inceſſantly upon the ſurface of the earth, the production of heat predominates over the effects of evaporation, and the warmth diminiſhes gradually as we aſcend. But at night, when the production of heat is interrupted, the warm air gradually diſſolves the humidity at the ſurface, and the evaporation occaſions a prodigious refrigeration.

Mr.

Mr. Six ſuſpended his thermometers at various heights, and made a ſeries of obſervations which confirm the principles we have laid down. In the day-time the temperature, on the top of a tower 220 feet high, was generally 2° colder than in the valley below. At night, in cloudy weather, the difference could hardly be perceived. In clear weather at night, the air at the ſurface was 6° colder than on the top of the tower in ſummer, and about 2° in autumn. Mr. Six concludes this curious paper with an account of the temperature of the new well in Dover Caſtle, which is 360 feet deep, and contains 21 feet of water. The temperature at the top was 56°, at the middle 52°, and at the bottom 49°. This inequality in a ſmall body of water, at ſuch a depth, ſeems to be rather an anomalous fact.

Art. IX. Obſervations on the Manner in which Glaſs is charged with the Electric Fluid, and diſcharged. By Edward Whitaker Gray, M. D. F. R. S. This paper is very ſhort, and ſeems to contain few new ideas. He conceives that electricity may be accumulated upon the inner ſurface of a coated jar to *a certain degree*, and that the ſparks that are drawn from the exterior ſurface are, in this caſe, the *effect* and not the *cauſe*. He alſo imagines that the jar is not diſcharged all at once, but by the rapid tranſmiſſion of ſmall quantities of the electric fluid.

Art. X. Experiments on the cooling of Water below its freezing Point. By Charles Blagden, M. D. Sec. R. S. and F. A. S. It has long been obſerved that water often remains fluid even when cooled ſeveral degrees below the freezing point. Dr. Blagden has made ſome additional experiments upon this ſubject, the reſults of which are curious but irregular. Diſtilled water expoſed, in a common tumbler glaſs, to a frigorific mixture of ſnow or ice and common ſalt, was cooled to 23°. Water purged of its air by violent ebullition, did not freeze till the thermometer ſunk to 21°. In general, air promotes the tendency to congelation; and acidulated water can hardly be cooled below the freezing point. Hard pump-water was cooled to 24°. But the moſt remarkable circumſtance is, that turbid water could never be brought above 2° or 3° below the temperature of the freezing point. Dr. Blagden diſſolved ſeveral ſalts in water, as common ſalt, nitre, ſal ammoniac, &c. but always found that the ſolutions continued fluid ſeveral degrees below the temperature at which they naturally congealed. This was ſtill more remarkable when water was combined with acids. Dr. Blagden obſerved that congelation was brought on by a ſort of tremulation or internal diſturbance of the particles of the liquid, rather than by ruffling the ſurface, or by gentle agitation. He could generally ſucceed by rubbing a bit of wax againſt the ſide of the tumbler under the water. It is probable that muddineſs promoted

promoted the diſpoſition to freeze, by occaſioning an internal commotion among the particles. It is a curious fact, that if water, cooled below the freezing point, be touched by the leaſt particle of ice, it inſtantly congeals, and cryſtals ſhoot from the point of contact as from a centre. It has been obſerved that water ſlightly covered reſiſts congelation more powerfully than when openly expoſed, though at the ſame temperature. Dr. Blagden accounts for this phenomenon from the frozen particles which generally float in the atmoſphere in winter, and are ſometimes even viſible; that when one of theſe comes in contact with the water the glacial cryſtals immediately ſhoot. We are afraid that this hypotheſis ſavours too much of the long-exploded doctrine of frigorific particles. Dr. Blagden ſeems to adopt an idea of the juſtly celebrated Dr. Black, that the particles of water have a *ſort* of polarity which produces that curious arrangement of the ſpiculæ obſerved in congelation. This notion is totally unphiloſophical; and even if it were admitted, it would by no means account for the phenomena. Magnetiſm is a branch of ſcience which preſents appearances ſo extraordinary, and ſo contrary to the experience of our ſenſes, that it ſets the imagination afloat, and affords it ſcope to range at will.

Art. XI. Experiments and Obſervations relating to the Principle of Acidity, the Compoſition of Water, and Phlogiſton. By Joſeph Prieſtley, LL.D. F.R.S. The diſcovery of the compoſition of water from oxygen and hydrogen forms one of the ſplendid eras in the hiſtory of philoſophy. It has laid the foundation of a theory which has exalted chemiſtry almoſt to the rank of ſcience. But the experiments upon which this doctrine reſts are of a nature ſo delicate, and require to be conducted on ſo large and expenſive a ſcale, that we are not ſurpriſed to find that, with different perſons, the reſults ſomewhat vary. Dr. Prieſtley, the father of the late improvements in chemiſtry, ſeems to be wedded to ancient ſyſtems. He finds that with the water obtained by the inflammation of oxygen and hydrogen gaſes, there is always mixed a ſmall portion of acid, commonly nitre; and he thence infers that this is the real and natural product of the combination. But this does not affect the theory of Lavoiſier. The true explanation is to be drawn from the *impurity* of the gaſes he employed. The hydrogen gas he obtained by paſſing ſteam over red-hot iron; but iron generally contains a portion of carbonaceous matter, which, with hydrogen gas, forms carbonic acid. The oxygen gas he did not derive from the red oxyd of mercury, the only *pure* ſource, but from the oxyd of manganeſe, red precipitate, and red lead. Red precipitate always retains a little of the nitric acid employed in oxygenating it. Red lead, particularly if it has been kept for any

any length of time, contains a mixture of carbonic and azotic gaſes, the laſt of which would form nitric acid with oxygen. Hence it is eaſy to account for the *adventitious* portion of acid. With regard to the quantity of water diſſolved in air, it is found to be extremely ſmall. Carbonic gas has indeed a ſtronger attraction, and retains a large portion in ſolution.

Art. XII. Some Obſervations on the Irritability of Vegetables. By James Edward Smith, M. D. F. R. S. Nature aſcends through her productions by minute and inſenſible gradations. A ſtriking analogy in the ſtructure and phyſiology ſubſiſts between animals and vegetables. Every plant poſſeſſes, in ſome degree, that principle of *irritability*, which was once conceived to be the characteriſtic of animal life. The delicate ſenſibility of the *mimoſæ*, *ſenſitiva* and *pudica* has long been admired. The *dionæa muſcipula*, from Carolina, manifeſts this quality in a more remarkable manner; it graſps the inſects that alight upon it, and transfixes them with its prickles. In the barberry, *berberis communis*, the ſtamina are extremely irritable. Dr. Smith has examined this ſubject with attention, and finds that this quality is confined to that ſide of the filament next the germen. Upon touching that part with a fine briſtle, feather, &c. the ſtamina ſpring forwards with great vigour from the petals, under which they were ſheltered, to the ſtigma.

Dr. Smith, like many of the diſciples of Linnæus, is fond to indulge in the ſearch of final cauſes. But this is not the province of the philoſopher. He then leaves the field of reaſon to ſoar in the aerial regions of fancy. How many inſtances does the hiſtory of philoſophy record of imagined deſign, which were afterwards exploded? and how much did theſe contribute to retard the progreſs of diſcovery?

Art. XIII. An Account of Experiments made by Mr. John M'Nab, at Albany Fort, Hudſon's Bay, relative to the freezing of Nitrous and Vitriolic Acids. By Henry Cavendiſh, Eſq. F. R. S. and A. S. It would be tedious and unintereſting to give a detail of theſe experiments. We ſhall content ourſelves with an abſtract of the reſult. It appears that ſpirit of nitre ſuffers not only an *aqueous* congelation, in which the watery part chiefly freezes, but alſo a *ſpirituous* congelation, in which the acid itſelf freezes. When the ſtrength of the acid is ſuch as not to diſſolve ſo much as .243 of its weight of marble, it is liable to the aqueous congelation ſolely; and this congelation takes place at 44° below the freezing point, or at a higher temperature, according as the ſtrength of the acid is diminiſhed. When the ſtrength of the acid is .418, it undergoes the ſpirituous congelation at the leaſt degree of cold, which is $2°\frac{1}{2}$ below the freezing point; and, if the acid be either ſtronger or weaker,

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it requires a more intenſe cold to bring on the congelation. The oil of vitriol is more irregular in its congelations; it has two degrees of ſtrength at which the heats of its freezing points are *minima*. At the ſtrength of .977, its freezing point is +1°; at .918, —26°; at .846, +42°; at .758, —45°.

The firſt part of this volume of the Royal Tranſactions concludes with a meteorological journal for 1787, kept in the apartments of the Society, by order of the preſident and council. From this it appears that the medium temperature without was 51°, the average height of the mercury in the barometer 29,8 inches, and the quantity of rain fallen 17 inches.

ART. V. *Medical Inquiries and Obſervations. To which is added an Appendix, containing Obſervations on the Duties of a Phyſician, and the Methods of improving Medicine. By Benjamin Ruſh, M. D. Profeſſor of Chemiſtry in the Univerſity of Pennſylvania. The Second Edition.* 8vo. 4s. ſewed. Philadelphia, printed: Dilly, London. 1789.

DR. Ruſh poſſeſſes ſome ingenuity, and, unlike the generality of his countrymen, writes with conſiderable correctneſs and elegance. His genius is verſatile and ſpecious; his ideas are confuſed, unconnected, and often extravagant. His language ſometimes grovels with vulgariſms, but oftener it ſwells with falſe eloquence. The firſt eſſay in this collection, read before the American Philoſophical Society at Philadelphia in 1774, is an inquiry into the natural hiſtory of medicine among the Indians. The children are plunged every day in cold water, and are ſuckled till they are near two years old. In order to facilitate their being moved from place to place, and at the ſame time to preſerve their ſhape, they are tied to a board, when they lie on their backs for ſix, ten, or eighteen months. The Indians uſe a diet partly animal and partly vegetable; their animals are wild, and therefore eaſy of digeſtion. They have no ſet time for eating, and, after whole days ſpent in the chace or in war, they often commit great exceſſes. They frequently ſpend three or four hours in ſatisfying their hunger. The women are condemned by their huſbands to drudgery and labour, and acquire a maſculine firmneſs of body. During pregnancy their lot is mitigated; but they are delivered in a private cabbin, without an attendant, and with little pain. The Indians uſe the cold-bath, and anoint their bodies with bear's-greaſe mixed with clay, which ſerves to diminiſh the ſenſibility of the nerves, and prepare them in ſome degree for enduring thoſe tortures to which

which they ſubmit. Fevers are almoſt their only diſeaſes; the ſmall-pox and the venereal diſorder were communicated to the Indians of North America by the Europeans. They permit the patient to drink plentifully of cold water, and recommend ſweating. 'The patient is confined in a cloſe tent or wigwam, 'over a hole in the earth, in which a red-hot ſtone is placed; a 'quantity of water is thrown upon this ſtone, which inſtantly 'involves the patient in a cloud of vapour and ſweat; in this 'ſituation he ruſhes out and plunges himſelf, into the river, 'from whence he retires to bed.' The Indians uſe purges and vomits and the cauſtic and aſtringent medicines. Bleeding they confine entirely to the part affected; and their inſtruments are ſharp ſtones and thorns. The ſkill of the Indians in ſurgery and medicine has been much exaggerated; and their knowledge of the potency of ſimples and antidotes has been heightened by ignorance and zeal. Many things have been eſteemed poiſons, which ſubſequent experience has proved to be harmleſs, or even ſalutary. Dr. Ruſh inveighs againſt the progreſs of luxury and effeminacy, and laments the uncertainty and inſtability of the healing art. He burſts into an extravagant and abſurd ſwell: 'I honour the name of Hippocrates; but forgive me, ye vo- 'taries of antiquity, if I attempt to pluck a few grey hairs from 'his venerable head. I was once an idolater at his altar; nor 'did I turn apoſtate from his worſhip till I was taught that not 'one tenth part of his prognoſtics correſponded with modern 'practice.'

The ſecond tract is an account of the climate of Pennſylvania; which, though irregular and unconnected, contains ſome intereſting remarks. The ſtate of Pennſylvania lies between the 40th and 42d degree of latitude; it extends 157 miles from north to ſouth, and, excluſive of the late acceſſions, it ſtretches 311 miles from the coaſt into the interior country. It is interſected and diverſified with numerous rivers, and at a diſtance from the ſea it is very mountainous. The Allegany croſſes the ſtate about 200 miles from Philadelphia, and is called by the Indians the back-bone of the continent. The ſoil of Pennſylvania is much diverſified; the vallies and bottoms conſiſt of a black mould, but the ſurface of the earth is in general covered with a deep clay, which in many parts reſts upon immenſe beds of limeſtone. The climate of Pennſylvania is remarkably variable. In ſummer the thermometer ſometimes falls, in the courſe of a ſingle night, from 90 to 60 degrees. In 1775 it was obſerved to fall 20° in the ſpace of an hour and an half. In winter, the variation is often 40° in the courſe of twenty-four hours. On the night of the 31ſt December 1764 the Delaware, which is about a mile wide near the city, was completely frozen

between ten at night and eight next morning. The ſpring in Pennſylvania is generally unpleaſant. In March the weather is ſtormy, variable, and cold; in April it is damp and cloudy. June is the month when nature wears her moſt agreeable robes. The weather is then temperate, the ſky is ſerene, and the fields and the foreſts are painted with univerſal verdure. In July the ſun rages with violence, and the air is clear, calm, and ſultry. In Auguſt the evenings grow cool, and hence abundant dews. Clothes are ſometimes wet, and marſh-meadows and creeks, which have been dry during the ſummer, are thus ſometimes ſupplied with moiſture. During autumn the weather is mild and agreeable. The froſt ſets in about the end of October, or the beginning of November. During winter the cold is intenſe, and often of long duration. It is curious to obſerve that thoſe ſeaſons which have been reckoned extraordinary in Europe, have alſo been conſidered as remarkable in America:

'The winter of the year 1779, 80, was uniformly and uncommonly cold. The river Delaware was frozen near three months during this winter, and public roads for waggons and ſleighs connected the city of Philadelphia, in many places, with the Jerſey ſhore. The thickneſs of the ice in the river near the city, was from ſixteen to nineteen inches, and the depth of the froſt in the ground was from four to five feet, according to the expoſure of the ground and the quality of the ſoil. This extraordinary depth of the froſt in the earth, compared with its depth in more northern and colder countries, is occaſioned by the long delay of ſnow, which leaves the earth without a covering during the laſt autumnal and the firſt winter months. Many plants were deſtroyed by the intenſeneſs of the cold during this winter. The ears of horned cattle, and the feet of hogs, expoſed to the air, were froſt-bitten; ſquirrels periſhed in their holes, and partridges were often found dead in the neighbourhood of farm-houſes. The mercury in January ſtood for ſeveral hours at 5° below 0 in Farenheit's thermometer; and during the whole of this month (except on one day) it never roſe in the city of Philadelphia ſo high as to the freezing point.'

The winters 1779, 80, 1783, 84, and 1788, 89, were all in America remarkably ſevere.—Dr. Ruſh ſums up the account of the climate of Pennſylvania in a few words: 'Here we have the 'moiſture of Britain in the ſpring, the heat of Africa in the 'ſummer, the temperature of Italy in June, the ſky of Egypt 'in autumn, the cold and ſnows of Norway and the ice of Hol-'land in winter, the tempeſts (in a certain degree) of the Weſt 'Indies in every ſeaſon, and the variable winds and weather of 'Great-Britain in every month.'

The medium temperature of the city of Philadelphia is 54½°; and the average fall of rain is from 24 to 36 inches. The mercury

mercury in the barometer generally falls with a ſoutherly wind and riſes with a northerly.

The ſubject of the next eſſay is the bilious remitting fever which appeared in Philadelphia in the ſummer and autumn of the year 1780. The ſpring was dry and cool. A catarrh appeared among children from one to ſeven years old; and in May an intermittent fever prevailed among adults. July and Auguſt were uncommonly warm. Many labouring people expired by the exceſſive heat, or by drinking cold liquors. Among the children the ſickneſs and mortality were great. Towards the end of Auguſt the weather became ſuddenly cool. This was the ſignal of diſeaſe. The epidemic rapidly ſpread. Intemperance, expoſure, the ſlighteſt accident, gave birth to the diſorder, and all ages and both ſexes were affected:

'This fever generally came on with rigour, but ſeldom with a regular chilly fit, and often without any ſenſation of cold. In ſome perſons it was introduced by a ſlight ſore throat, and in others by a hoarſeneſs, which was miſtaken for a common cold. A giddineſs in the head was the forerunner of the diſeaſe in ſome people. This giddineſs attacked ſo ſuddenly, as to produce, in ſeveral inſtances, a faintneſs, and even ſymptoms of apoplexy. It was remarkable that all thoſe perſons who were affected in this violent manner, recovered in two or three days.

'The pains which accompanied this fever were exquiſitely ſevere in the head, back, and limbs. The pains in the head were ſometimes in the back parts of it, and at other times they occupied only the eyeballs. In ſome people the pains were ſo acute in their backs and hips, that they could not lie in bed. In others, the pains affected the neck and arms, ſo as to produce, in one inſtance, a difficulty of moving the fingers of the right hand. They all complained more or leſs of a ſoreneſs in the ſeats of theſe pains, particularly when they occupied the head and eyeballs. A few complained of their fleſh being ſore to the touch in every part of the body. From theſe circumſtances the diſeaſe was ſometimes believed to be a rheumatiſm; but its more general name among all claſſes of people was, the *break-bone fever*.'

Dr. Ruſh began with emptying the contents of the ſtomach and bowels by a gentle vomit of tartar emetic, and by gentle doſes of ſalts, cream of tartar, or of butter-nut pill. He then gave ſmall doſes of tartar emetic mixed with Glauber's ſalts, and recommended cordial aperitive drinks, and bathing the feet at night. Moſt of thoſe who recovered complained of nauſea, of the total want of appetite, of wearineſs and faintneſs. Sometimes the convaleſcence was attended with dejection of ſpirits; in which caſe the Doctor gave the tincture of bark, and the elixir of vitriol, in frequent doſes. He found that, after the neceſſary evacuations were made, the uſe of opium was highly ſucceſsful.

The next tract contains an account of the *Scarlatina Anginoſa* which appeared in Philadelphia in 1783 and 1784. The beginning of July was unuſually cold. Towards the end of the month it became ſuddenly warm, and the thermometer ſtood for three days at 94°½. The air was ſtill and ſuffocating. Upwards of twenty perſons died from the exceſſive heat, or from drinking cold water. The weather again became cold, and during Auguſt it continued variable. Fevers of every ſpecies prevailed:

'The month of September was cool and dry, and the *Scarlatina Anginoſa* became epidemic among adults as well as young people. In moſt of the patients who were affected by it, it came on with a chilliness and a ſickneſs at the ſtomach, or a vomiting; which laſt was ſo invariably preſent that it was with me a pathognomonic ſign of the diſeaſe. The matter diſcharged from the ſtomach was always bile. The ſwelling of the throat was, in ſome inſtances, ſo great, as to produce a difficulty of ſpeaking, ſwallowing and breathing. In a few inſtances the ſpeech was accompanied by a ſqueaking voice, reſembling that which attends the cynanche trachealis. The ulcers on the tonſils were deep, and covered with white, and, in ſome inſtances, with black ſloughs. In ſeveral caſes there was a diſcharge of a thick mucus from the noſe, from the beginning, but it oftener occurred in the decline of the diſeaſe, which moſt frequently happened on the fifth day. Sometimes the ſubſiding of the ſwelling of the throat was followed by a ſwelling behind the ears.'

Dr. Ruſh began the cure by giving a vomit, joined with calomel; and when this laſt failed in its effect, he gave lenient purges. The throat was kept clean by detergent gargles, and gentle antimonial doſes and diluting drinks were adminiſtered.

The *Cholera Infantum*, which is the ſubject of the next tract, is alarming in its ſymptoms, and fatal in its effects. It prevails in moſt of the large towns in America. It appears in the ſouthern ſtates in the ſpring, but in the northern not till the middle or end of ſummer. It has been attributed to dentition, to worms, to ſummer fruits. Dr. Ruſh conſiders it as a bilious diſorder. In the treatment he recommends vomits, purges, opiates, diluting drinks, and glyſters made of flax-ſeed tea, &c. After the violent ſymptoms are compoſed, he recommends the decoction of bark and port wine, or claret mixed with water.

Dr. Ruſh thus deſcribes a melancholy accident, with which we, in this mild iſland, are happily unacquainted:

'Few ſummers elapſe in Philadelphia in which there are not inſtances of many perſons being affected by drinking cold water. In ſome ſeaſons four or five perſons have died ſuddenly from this cauſe in one day. This mortality falls chiefly upon the labouring part of the community, who ſeek to allay their thirſt by drinking the water from the pumps in the ſtreets, and who are too impatient, or too ignorant, to

to uſe the neceſſary precautions for preventing its morbid or deadly effects upon them. Theſe accidents ſeldom happen, except when the mercury riſes above 85° in Farenheit's thermometer.

'In a few minutes after the patient has ſwallowed the water he is affected by a dimneſs of ſight, he ſtaggers in attempting to walk, and, unleſs ſupported, falls to the ground; he breathes with difficulty; a rattling is heard in his throat; his noſtrils and cheeks expand and contract in every act of reſpiration; his face appears ſuffuſed with blood, and of a livid colour; his extremities become cold, and his pulſe imperceptible; and, unleſs relief is ſpeedily obtained, the diſorder terminates in death in four or five minutes.'

He recommends *liquid laudanum* as an almoſt certain remedy.

Dr. Ruſh's thoughts on the pulmonary conſumption contain nothing new. That melancholy diſorder is unknown among the Indians of North-America, and ſeldom appears among thoſe ſettlers who retain the primæval manners.

In his obſervations upon anthelminthic medicines, Dr. Ruſh refers the diſeaſes produced by worms to the claſs of *neuroſes*. The remedies are vomits, purges, aſtringent ſubſtances, and ſweet oil; cowhage and powder of tin; alſo common ſalt, ripe fruits, and ſaccharine ſubſtances. Calomel muſt be given in large doſes. The expreſſed juice of onions, and a ſyrup made of the bark of the Jamaica cabbage-tree, are powerful remedies; but the moſt certain anthelminthic is the Carolina pink-root.

Tetanus Dr. Ruſh aſcribes to relaxation. It is commonly produced by exceſſive warmth; but it may be occaſioned by labour or fatigue. The Doctor diſapproves of the uſe of opium, and recommends the uſe of wine and bark.

From the obſervations which Dr. Ruſh made in the military hoſpitals of the United States, the common remark is confirmed, that an European has a ſtronger conſtitution, can ſupport more fatigue, and does not ſuffer ſo much from the climate, as a native of America. The Doctor's account of the influence of the American revolution upon the human body, ſeems to be extremely fanciful. The greatneſs and the uncertainty of the event, and the ſanguine expectations of the people, have undoubtedly produced *ſome* effects; but theſe were modified by various circumſtances; and a great part of the American army was compoſed of renegadoes from Europe, whoſe zeal was artificial and momentary.

Dr. Ruſh has annexed a diſcourſe delivered to his pupils at the end of his courſe of lectures. It contains ſome plain advices, but in general it is minute and puerile.

ART. VI. *Archæologia; or, Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity. Published by the Society of Antiquaries of London. Vol. VIII.* 4to. 1l. 1s. White. London, 1787.

[*Concluded.*]

'XXXVI. *On the Origin of the Jews in England. By 'Mr. John Caley, F. A. S.'*

The first notice that Mr. Caley can find of the Jews in England, is about the middle of the eighth century; when a canon was made, forbidding Christians to *partake of their feasts*. In the next century mention is made by a charter to the abbey of Croyland, of lands given to the monks by *Jews*. These remarks shew the falsehood of the action, that the Jews were first introduced into England by the Conqueror. What are called the laws of the Confessor, also declare 'the *Jews* and all their 'property to be the king's.' Bracton speaks exactly the same language for his time. And all unite to shew the existence, and the oppressions, of the Jews in this country, from the beginning.

'XXXVII. *An historical and descriptive Account of the ancient 'Painting preserved at Cowdray in Sussex. By John Top-'ham, Esq. F. R. A. S.'*

This painting 'contains the procession of King Edward VI. 'from the Tower of London to Westminster, the day preced-'ing that of his coronation.' Mr. Topham accordingly describes this procession, from a printed account at the time; and then gives us the delineation of it, and of the several parts of London through which it moves, as they are exhibited in the picture. This 'represents the procession the whole distance from 'the Tower to Westminster, at the point of time when the 'king was in Cheapside, having just passed the celebrated cross 'which then stood in that street. The cavalcade is proceed-'ing through the arched gateway leading into St. Paul's church-'yard, where it is lost for a time; but is again seen at the top 'of Ludgate-Street, advancing through Ludgate and Temple-'Bar, and passes [it should be, passing] Charing-Cross to the 'palace at Westminster. The part meant principally to be re-'presented, is the south side of Cheapside, from Bow church to 'the entrance into St. Paul's church-yard. *The master of each 'house is standing at his shop-door*, and *saluting the king as he 'passes.*'

The

The old church of Bow, ‘ on which the new one is founded, ‘ is now converted into a sepulchral repository; the structure of ‘ which consists of two rows of small circular pillars, the capitals whereof are now about *two feet and an half* above the *floor* ‘ of the *vault*, which *shews the ground to be greatly raised in this* ‘ *neighbourhood*;’ and which indeed shews the very floor of the old church itself to have been gradually raised by burials, almost up to the capitals of its pillars.

‘ To render more useful’ the great conduit in Cheapside, ‘ in ‘ 1439 the mayor and citizens obtained from the abbot and convent of Westminster, the grant of a fountain called Oxlase, ‘ within the lands and precinct of the manor of Paddington, with ‘ the free use thereof;’ Quære, Where in Paddington was this fountain? ‘ provided there was sufficient water left for the farmers and tenants of that manor, and that the pipes should not ‘ be laid in any part of the lands *within the manor of Hide*, which ‘ *then belonged to the church of Westminster*,’ and now forms the Hide Park of our sovereigns.

‘ These paintings at Cowdray have generally been ascribed to ‘ Hans Holbein. Sir Joseph Ayloffe was of opinion, that they ‘ were not the work of that celebrated master; but rather supposes them to have been the production of Theodore Bernardi, who some years after painted, in the senth transept of ‘ Chichester cathedral, the portraits of the kings of England and ‘ the bishops of that see, and afterwards settled with his family ‘ in that part of Sussex. Whoever the painter might be, many ‘ of the figures represented are finely executed; and, according ‘ to the remark of the ingenious author of Anecdotes of Painting in England, the histories, habits, and customs of the times, ‘ represented in these paintings, make the room which contains ‘ them a singular curiosity.’

Then comes an appendix, to be annexed to each future volume, of ‘ such curious communications, as the council shall ‘ not think proper to publish *entire*,’ only ‘ *extracted* from the ‘ minutes of the Society, and formed into an historical memoir.’ We heartily approve of this addition to the former plan, and shall notice one or two points in it.

‘ Feb. 16, 1764. Mr. Jeans, introduced by Mr. Da Costa, ‘ exhibited an old ivory comb eight inches long and a quarter ‘ deep, dug up 1761 *nineteen* feet *below* the *present* surface of ‘ Skipraw-Street in *Aberdeen*; and supposed to have lain there, ‘ ever since Edward III. king of England, burnt and ruined ‘ that city, because the inhabitants shook off his yoke, and ‘ massacred his garrison. In digging to *this* depth, Mr. Jeans

'cut through *three* paved ſtreets *below* the *preſent*; and on the 'ſpot where the comb was taken up, were *all the marks of fire*, 'and ſome iron utenſils lying on a plain ground-floor.'

The Hon. Daines Barrington, ſpeaking of the large maſſes of ſtone 'on ſome parts of the Berkſhire and Wiltſhire downs, 'and more particularly—in a village near Lord Craven's hunt-'ing ſeat of Aſhdown Park, which is about two miles diſtant 'from the paſtures in Compton pariſh;' ſays 'it ſeems very 'clear, that theſe immenſe maſſes were never brought to their 'preſent ſituations, by the inhabitants of this iſland in any age or 'period; for they muſt have been removed from the valley near 'Lord Craven's ſeat, at two or three miles diſtance; to which 'attempt I ſhould ſcarcely conceive that the engineers of the 'preſent times are equal.' Mr. Barrington therefore proceeds to ſuppoſe 'that they were thrown to ſuch a diſtance by an '*exploſion accompanying an earthquake*; when *moſt* of them fell in 'the valley ſouth of Aſhdown Park, but *others* were carried to '*ſeveral* of the adjacent villages in the vale of Whitehorſe, and '*more particularly* to the feeding-ground in Compton pariſh.' This ſuppoſition is ſo enormouſly wild in itſelf, as ſuppoſing an exploſion without aſſigning any reaſon or fixing any place for it; and as ſuppoſing one that muſt have rent the iſland in pieces, if it could throw *ſuch* ſtones to an *unknown* diſtance; that credulity itſelf muſt reject it. But when we reflect, that theſe ſtones of Compton pariſh and Aſhdown Park are *under* the downs, as we know them to be; and that the ſtones are ſcattered *all over the downs*, are even ſcattered more copiouſly over the Wiltſhire downs, and are even found on the moors of Cornwall, of Wales, of Yorkſhire, of Derbyſhire, and of every uncultivated county in the iſland; we ſee the abſurdity of Mr. Barrington's exploſion in Berkſhire, with a double force and power. How then ſhall we account for theſe huge moor-ſtones? We account for them thus. The ſhepherds upon the Berkſhire downs, we know, conſider them as *the natives of the ſoil*. Mr. Barrington indeed objects to this, that 'theſe fragments of rock are chiefly to be 'ſeen in a bye road through fields' near Compton; and that at Compton 'the ſoil—is a deep clay, under which it is ſo difficult 'to find any materials for mending the roads, that the inhabi-'tants are obliged to fetch chalk-ſtones from the downs for this 'purpoſe, to avoid which they ſometimes blaſt theſe enormous 'grey-weathers, at leaſt for mending gateways.' But this is ſurely no argument. Every rock muſt have a *pabulum* of earth below it. What then is the proper *pabulum* for theſe moor-ſtones in Berkſhire, Wiltſhire, &c.? *Earth* muſt be. But what kind of earth? We pretend not to ſay, except from facts.

facts. Theſe moorſtones are too enormous to be removed, Mr. Barrington himſelf thinks, even by the engineers 'of the 'preſent days.' Exploſions muſt be as numerous, as theſe accumulations of rocks: and therefore infinite in number. Each muſt have ſhook the iſland to its centre, in order to throw ſuch maſſes only a mile off. How then ſhall we ſcatter them as they are ſcattered, over the iſland? Let the Berkſhire ſhepherds tell us. Shepherds are often better judges of phyſical *phænomena*, than ſcholars. And the only way of accounting for theſe ſtones, is what they have ſuggeſted to us; that they grow where they are ſeen, in their native beds.

Mr. Barrington hazards this wild and abſurd conjecture of an exploſion, becauſe it will 'remove a moſt material part of the 'difficulties, which attend that moſt ſtupendous work of rude 'art, *Stonehenge*.' We have hazarded ours for the ſame reaſon. 'It is well known,' adds Mr. Barrington, 'that there are 'no ſimilar quarries in the neighbourhood, to furniſh materials 'for this moſt ſingular ſtructure; and engineers have long (but 'unſucceſsfully) attempted to account for ſuch large ſlabs hav-'ing been carried to their preſent ſituation from ſo conſider-'able a diſtance;' as the Grey Wethers near Marlborough, we ſuppoſe. And, ſince exploſions are ridiculous when any other principle in nature is competent to the occaſion; and ſince *ſuch* exploſions muſt be equally *infinite* in number, and *at each repetition* deſtructive of the whole iſland; we are *compelled* to recur to the ſimple and obvious principle, of theſe huge blocks *growing* generally *where they are found*, and growing particularly under the feet of the builders of Stonehenge.

We thus conclude our review of this volume of the Archæologia. We have reviewed it in a manner that we have never ſeen attempted before, but which we think peculiarly adapted for ſuch a miſcellaneous work as this. We have drawn off nearly all the quinteſſence of the volume, the richer juices, and the more poignant ſauces, of it into our review. And we have only to conclude our treat in the *Chriſtian* manner, with a *prayer* of *thanks* for the *regale* which we have had, and with a prayer of *hope*, that each ſucceeding volume may give us as good an *entertainment* as the preſent has.

ART.

ART. VII. *Medical Eſſays. I. An Eſſay on the Principles and Manners of the Medical Profeſſion. II. An Inquiry into the Merits of Solvents for the Stone. With Additions.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. boards. Dodſley. London, 1789.

THESE Eſſays are evidently the production of a well-educated practitioner, and of an honeſt man. There is an air of diſappointment which, in many parts, the author in vain attempts to conceal, by which we ſhould ſuſpect his beſt endeavours in his profeſſion have not met with the ſucceſs they were entitled to; and that being unable to ſtoop to ſervility or meanneſs, he retired from it at an early age. However this may be, it becomes us to do juſtice to his honeſt wiſhes to render the profeſſion more reſpectable, by removing the unjuſt prejudices of the ignorant againſt it, and by reminding practitioners of the conduct they ought to purſue.

In the firſt eſſay, while the writer admits, or rather refuſes to deny, that the medical art is in ſome degree degenerated, he endeavours to ſhew that this degradation has been effected by the behaviour of the world towards practitioners. That a ſuſpicious carriage and niggardly manner of rewarding their ſervices, has obliged many of them, in their own defence, to adopt meaſures they never intended at the commencement of their career. Why this is ſo often the caſe with one branch of the profeſſion, the author explains with ſo much propriety that we ſhall give the paſſage in his own words:

'That the impreſſions of a favour recently conferred produce more immediate and lively ſymptoms of gratitude than the remembrance of former acts of kindneſs, however beneficial or important, is a fact which experience confirms, but honour diſapproves.

'A grateful heart ardently pants to make a quick return for offices of benevolence, leaving prudence and reflection to pauſe and to delay. For it frequently happens that what in the moment of thankful rapture was magnified as a godlike action, dwindles, in the long-extended perſpective of time and policy, into a kindneſs, a duty, and a trifling favour.

'Did a due ſenſe of the importance of obligations equally diminiſh in the minds of thoſe who confer and thoſe who receive them, the mutual complaints of ungrateful and unreaſonable tempers would not be ſo often heard.

'But it happens unfortunately in the general intercourſes of life, that the conferrer of a benefit heightens and overvalues it in the ſame proportion that the perſon obliged depreciates and lowers it.

'From a conſideration of theſe truths, which are deduced from a view of the conduct of mankind in general, we can eaſily account for the ſame motives operating ſtill more powerfully in the concerns of the medical profeſſion in particular; a profeſſion which exiſts in relieving

relieving calamities, and lives by being rewarded for it. The phyſician, it is true, has often the advantage of receiving his fee, accompanied with the moſt ſolemn proteſtations of reſpect and eſteem, and attended with ten thouſand indeſcribeable circumſtances that increaſe its value.

'While the impreſſions of preſent pain, hope, and fear, are deep in the hearts of the patient and his friends; while the love of money is repreſſed by increaſing danger and anxiety, he is conſidered and received as an invaluable friend, as one on whom the happineſs and tranquillity of the family depend; while medicine is conſidered as the laſt and only method of preſerving a doubtful life.

'In this caſe the preſent is generally ſuch as a generous mind is proud to beſtow, and ſuch as will not diſgrace acknowledged merit to receive.

'Happy intercourſe where gratitude and liberality increaſe the pleaſure of doing good, and give a zeſt to that beſt of all efforts, an effort to bleſs!

'But in branches of the profeſſion leſs honourable, leſs lucrative, but more fatiguing and laborious, the caſe is far otherwiſe: theſe unhappy men are ſeldom employed from any preference of opinion, but chiefly becauſe their advice and aſſiſtance are procured at the cheapeſt rates; and not unfrequently becauſe they may be defrauded and impoſed on with leſs difficulty, and leſs fear of detection and puniſhment.

'It is a matter of eaſe, and often of triumph, to an illiberal mind, to find out ſome plauſible pretence for diſappointment, delay, or refuſal; nor indeed can it be denied that the infamous returns of abuſe and defamation are cheap methods of diſcharging, or rather evading a demand.

'We may in ſome degree excuſe the celebrated Dr. Radcliffe for his unjuſtifiable advice to Dr. Mead, under the ſuppoſition that he was irritated by ſimilar treatment, and provoked by ill uſage.

'An uncomplying kind of behaviour, ſuch as Radcliffe's, bordering on cruelty, would be unſufferable in a man of leſs eminence, but would be highly culpable in any one.

'The ſubaltern practitioner muſt attain or aſſume more philoſophy, or he muſt not eat; he muſt learn to ſubmit with patience to the inſults and injuries which the lower orders of his profeſſion are daily expoſed to.

'And if he does not receive a conſiderable gratification from the exerciſe of a benevolent diſpoſition, independent of the profits of his practice, he may look with envy on the preferable condition of an hewer of wood or a drawer of water.

'The dexterity requiſite for effecting a *good day's work*, and the plauſible exhibition of innocent no-meaning trifles in all caſes, certainly requires no great exertion of the mind in inveſtigating the complaints of a patient, and may be termed an eaſy way of *doing buſineſs*.

'But ſuch a conduct, how well ſoever it may anſwer the preſent purpoſes of profit, will afford no ſatisfaction in the retired moments of unbiaſſed reflection; when a man ſhall find that he has loſt many

opportunities of producing ſome eſſential advantage, or removing ſome threatening evil.'

Our author next proceeds to inveſtigate ſome of the prejudices againſt the art itſelf, independent of its practice. Here we meet with ſome ingenious, but not ſufficiently connected, obſervations. It is to be regretted, indeed, that in this, as well as every other part of the work, the ſtyle is much too unconnected and diffuſive. The paragraphs are ſo ſhort as to give them the air of aphoriſms; and the mind is not only weary of ſuch perpetual interruption, but often diſappointed by a brevity which ſeems to leave the ſubject unfiniſhed. As this gentleman is fond of a Latin ſentence, we ſhall remind him of

Brevis eſſe labora
Obſcurus fio. HOR.

The reſt of this eſſay conſiſts chiefly of obſervations on the general mode of conducting the practice, and particularly of the preſent ſtate of it. Though we coincide with the ingenious writer in moſt inſtances, we think in one he has fallen into a general error. Whatever may have been the opinion of Dr. Garth, or of modern wits, as to the ſuperfluous number of practitioners, we wiſh it to be aſcertained how many of them are leſs employed through the day, than men, who ſhould devote at leaſt ſome time to application, ought to be. If it be ſaid that this is the caſe of ſome of the young phyſicians, we anſwer their number is ſmall, and that the inferior branches have, for the moſt part, infinitely leſs leiſure than men of buſineſs, who are much better paid for their labour. We are particularly induced to make this obſervation becauſe the poverty of this claſs of practitioners is too frequently and inconſiderately aſcribed to their numbers: but if they are all employed, it is plain their number is not greater than the public has occaſion for, however injurious it may be to their own eaſe and emolument.

In the ſecond eſſay, or inquiry into the merit of ſolvents for the ſtone, the author takes a view of moſt of the lethontryptics that have been offered to the public, and ſhews the ſuperior advantages of the operation. But here, for want of keeping pace with the improvement of the art, he has fallen into an error which, in the preſent ſtate of things, one almoſt wonders could been committed by ſo ſenſible a writer. The ſolvent medicine, ſays our author, was ſuppoſed to act upon the ſtone by diſſolving the glutinous matter, which united like a cement, and bound the earthy particles of it together. It is indeed extremely difficult to conceive what idea the firſt who propoſed alkalis as a ſolvent for the ſtone entertained of their effects, but it is only candid to allow that experiment directed them to the remedy.

It

It is now well known that the quantity of earth is trifling in the component parts of the human calculus, compared with the peculiar acid it contains. Thus the old practice confirming the modern theory, founded on experiment, is at leaſt a preſumptive argument in its favour. While we admit this, we allow with the author the great impropriety of perſevering long in the uſe of remedies which materially injure the conſtitution before they produce any effects on a calculus. Perhaps lime-water may be an exception to the general objections againſt alkalis; and if its effects are ſlower, may be perſevered in till ſome advantages are produced, or the increaſing pain encourages the patient to ſubmit to the operation.

The author next glances at the inefficacy of fixed air, which its warmeſt advocates muſt allow in this diſeaſe proved a mere bubble. The various objections againſt the operation are then fairly and candidly examined, and the moſt rational concluſions drawn, which are ſtrengthened by a ſtatement of facts taken from Mr. Cheſelden's Hoſpital Practice, which, with the author's general ſummary of the argument, we ſhall lay before our readers:

'The patients he [Mr. Cheſelden] publicly cut for the ſtone, in St. Thomas's Hoſpital, were two hundred and thirteen; their different ages, and the number that died, I ſhall endeavour to arrange:

Number of patients cut.		Years old each.		Died.
105	——	10	—	3
62	from	10 to 20	—	4
12	——	20 to 30	—	3
10	——	30 to 40	—	2
10	——	40 to 50	—	2
7	——	50 to 60	—	4
5	——	60 to 70	—	1
2	——	70 to 80	—	1
213				20

'The proportion of twenty out of ſuch a number cannot be thought great or alarming.

'Mr. Cheſelden obſerves that ſeveral had the ſmall-pox during their cure, ſome of whom died.

'One of the firſt hundred and five had a violent whooping cough, which carried him off. In this caſe, the urgency of the ſtone ſymptoms moſt likely rendered the operation immediately neceſſary; otherwiſe, waiting until the incidental diſeaſe was better would have been adviſeable.

'So that from the general opinion of ſurgeons, from Mr. Cheſelden's account, from what has been imparted to me on the beſt authority,

thority, and from what has fallen under my own obſervation, during my attendance at hoſpitals; we cannot aſſert, with truth, that more than one out of eleven die in conſequence of being cut for the ſtone.

'Were we or could we diveſt the operation of ſome of its accidental diſadvantages, and be careful enough to guard againſt ſome of the cauſes I have before mentioned, candour might allow us to bring the number to one in fourteen; a degree of danger which attends few capital operations in ſo ſmall a proportion.

'As the method of attempting to diſſolve the ſtone in the bladder by means of injections has, for ſeveral obvious reaſons, fallen into general diſuſe, I have ſpoken but little of them in particular, becauſe many of the reaſons urged againſt other modes of treatment were equally cogent againſt this.

'Should a ſolvent be hereafter offered to the world, it will be neceſſary, towards forming a proper judgment of its efficacy, to examine all who take it after death; the effects of the medicine on the *primæ viæ* and general health of the patient, ſhould be ſtrictly attended to; and the number on whom the trial is made ſhould be conſiderable.

'Should future ages poſſeſs a ſolvent efficacious, but not deſtructive to the ſyſtem, lithotomy may perhaps be ſuperſeded; until then, reaſon and experience point it out as the beſt and only reſource.

'And it ſeems very clear that the fame which the moſt reputed ſolvents have acquired has been built on errors in judgment, or intereſted views. For the human calculus ſeems to be a ſubſtance that can be acted upon only by ſuch preparations, the introduction of which into the body, in any neceſſary degree of ſtrength, is inconſiſtent with the delicacy of the parts they muſt paſs through, hurtful to the general health of the patient, and peculiarly injurious to the functions of the parts affected and their appendages.

'I ſhall conclude with adviſing thoſe who have prudent reſolution enough to undergo the operation, to do it in time, before the irritation of the diſeaſe itſelf, or the deleterious uſe of ſolvents, have impaired their general health; for, in a morbid ſtate of the blood and juices, no wound can heal kindly; and the operation, however ſafe and ſkilfully performed, by ſuch means may be rendered hazardous, and frequently fatal.'

We cannot take our leave of this little performance without again acknowledging the good intentions of the writer, and recommending the peruſal of it to medical practitioners and calculous ſufferers.

ART.

ART. VIII. *A View of the preſent State of Derbyſhire; with an Account of its moſt remarkable Antiquities. Illuſtrated by an accurate Map and Plates. By James Pilkington.* 8vo. 2 vols. 13s. boards. Derby, printed: Drewry, Derby; Deighton, London. 1789.

SEVERAL counties of England have already afforded ſubject to the writers of topography; and Derbyſhire, doubtleſs has ſome claim to the diligent attention of ſuch inquirers. This county lies nearly in the middle of England. According to Burdett's ſurvey, its greateſt length from north to ſouth is about fifty-five, and its greateſt breadth from eaſt to weſt about thirty-three miles. The face of the country exhibits ſo irregular an appearance that the ſouthern and northern parts of it are a ſtriking contraſt to each other. The former is not particularly remarkable for its hills and valleys; but the latter is diſtinguiſhed in an eminent degree by a long and continued ſucceſſion of both. In this part of the kingdom the country begins gently to riſe into hills, which, in their progreſs to the north, ſwell gradually into mountains. They firſt divide Lancaſhire from Yorkſhire; after which, entering Weſtmoreland, they ſpread over the whole face of that county, and a part of Cumberland. Then contracting into a ridge or chain, they form the limits betwixt Cumberland and Northumberland; whence, continuing their direction northward, they at laſt enter Scotland.

The northern part of Derbyſhire, which is ſo much diſtinguiſhed by the number, height, and extent of its hills and mountains, is no leſs remarkable for the great depth and width of its valleys, and the beauty and variety of its dales. The width and depth of the valleys are generally in proportion to the height of the ridges and mountains by which they are bounded. The broadeſt and deepeſt, therefore, are found in the High Peak, where their width, however, it is computed, never exceeds two miles, and their depth a thouſand feet. Upon looking into the broad deep valleys of the High Peak, ſays our author, the mind is filled with grand and ſublime ideas: but diverſified beauty is the prevailing characteriſtic of the narrow dales of the Low Peak; and perhaps there is no country which can boaſt of finer ſcenes of the latter kind than Derbyſhire. Though we cannot follow our author in his particular account of the country, we ſhall give the following ſhort extract as a ſpecimen of his deſcription, which in general we think is drawn with accuracy:

'The valley in the High Peak which has appeared to me moſt ſtriking is that in which the town of Caſtleton ſtands. The firſt view

view you get into it, when you enter it from the ſouth, is the beſt, more eſpecially at a point where the road makes a ſudden and abrupt turning along the edge of a high and ſteep precipice down into the town of Caſtleton. The valley, which is at leaſt 800 feet deep, and in many parts nearly two miles wide, extends directly eaſtward to the diſtance of five or ſix miles. A number of leſſer dales from the north and ſouth are ſeen at various diſtances to open into it. The ſteep ſides of the valley are alſo rendered very beautiful by a ſeries of well-cultivated encloſures, which riſe one above another to its very edge. The village of Hope with its ſpire church, which ſtands at the diſtance of two miles to the eaſt down the valley, has a very agreeable effect. Directing your eye along the edge of the north ſide of the valley, you ſee the country boldly ſwelling into hills, and at length terminating in two high points at a conſiderable diſtance from each other.

'When you deſcend from this elevated ſituation a freſh ſet of objects preſent themſelves, no leſs ſtriking and pictureſque. At the bottom you obſerve the town of Caſtleton. On a very high and ſteep eminence to the ſouth of it, the ruins of an ancient caſtle now and then catch your eye. And directly beyond the town the celebrated Mam-Tor raiſes his lofty head, and with an awful majeſty ſeems to overlook all this ſcene of beauty and grandeur.

'This valley does not extend weſtward beyond the town of Caſtleton, but here forms a moſt noble and magnificent amphitheatre, its back riſing in many parts at leaſt 1000 feet, and the diameter of its front meaſuring nearly two miles. If purſued in a contrary direction, it will however be found to be of very great length, extending to the diſtance of forty miles even below the town of Derby.

'In the courſe of this valley the views are extremely diverſified. In ſome places it becomes very narrow, and its ſides are ſo thickly clothed with wood, as to render it almoſt impaſſable. It then gradually opens again, and you have a wide extended proſpect before you. Every mile, nay almoſt every ſtep, preſents freſh objects and ſcenes, ſome of them the moſt grand, beautiful, and romantic, which can be conceived.'

The atmoſphere and climate of Derbyſhire are no leſs various than the general ſurface of the country. In the ſouthern part of it they greatly reſemble thoſe of neighbouring counties, which have the ſame degree of elevation. But in the High Peak and the north-eaſt extremity of the county, they are different in ſeveral reſpects, particularly with regard to the quantity of rain; of which ſo large a proportion ſcarcely falls in any other part of England as in the diſtrict laſt mentioned. It appears, from a comparative view, that the quantity of rain which falls at Chatſworth every year, exceeds, nearly one-third, that which has been collected at Lyndon and London during the ſame ſpace of time.

Another circumſtance obſerveable in regard to the atmoſphere of the Peak of Derbyſhire is, that it is ſubject to very ſtrong winds.

winds. Brisk currents of air are often felt on these high grounds when the inhabitants of low and less irregular countries in the neighbourhood suffer great inconvenience by the extreme closeness of the weather.

It has been said that no endemic, or epidemic disorders, no agues or fevers, are known to prevail in the north part of the county. But this assertion must be understood with some degree of limitation. For, upon inquiry, our author has been frequently informed that in the deep vallies and narrow dales agues and fevers are not uncommon, though such as live in higher situations are seldom troubled with those complaints. There is, however, one disease to which the inhabitants of Derbyshire are so much subject that it has recived its name from its great prevalence in this situation; being called the bronchocele, or Derby neck. It is a tumor arising on the fore-part of the neck. But of this we shall say no more, as an account of it, with the method of cure, was published by Mr. Proffer in 1769.

Mr. Pilkington next enters upon the subterraneous geography of the county, which he describes with much precision, under the general heads of limestone, coal, and gritstone land. We mean not to accompany him through his extensive inquiries on this subject, but shall present our readers with his description of the remarkable cavern at Castleton, known by the name of Peak's Hole:

'It is situated in a deep and narrow recess of the valley in which the town stands. On each side, and near the end of this recess, two large faces of rock are seen rising to a vast height. On the summit to the left, and close to the edge of the precipice, an ancient castle appears as it were perched aloft in the air. And at the foot of the rock, on the opposite side, the mouth of the cavern opens with grandeur and magnificence. It is about fourteen yards high and forty wide. The arch at the entrance is regularly formed, and in a direct line extends nearly three hundred feet. This part is tolerable light, and inhabited by a number of poor people employed in the manufacture of packthread. They have built small dwellings, and follow their work in this spacious and extended vault without experiencing the burning heats of the summer, or the sharp colds of the winter season. Beyond the first turning a gentle declivity is perceived, and the path is rendered wet and dirty by the drops of water which are frequently falling from the roof. At the distance of about an hundred and thirty yards from the mouth of the cavern, all further progress into it was formerly obstructed by a projection of the rock, and a deep gulf at the extremity of it. But a passage is now opened through the rock, and a door is hung and locked to prevent any one from going beyond this place without the assistance of a guide.

'The cavern, which has been ſome time gradually contracting, appears about twenty yards from hence to be entirely cloſed in every part. However, upon a near approach to the rock, a low paſſage under it, almoſt full of water, is diſcovered. This opening is juſt large enough to admit a ſmall boat, but the paſſenger in it is obliged to lie almoſt flat down, whilſt it is puſhed under the rock. Upon landing he finds himſelf in a cavern, ſtill more ſpacious than the former. It is ſaid to be ſeventy yards wide and forty high; but not a ray of light can enter it, excepting that which proceeds from a ſingle, which he carries with him; and the faint glimmering of this tends only to render him ſenſible of the extreme darkneſs and horror of the place. However, by a proper diſpoſition of candles, a tolerably complete idea of its ſhape and ſize may be formed. When ſufficiently illuminated, a path may be obſerved on the right hand, which leads up a ſteep aſcent to the top of a high rock, called the chancel. Deſcending from this elevated ſituation, and proceeding farther in the cavern, you perceive that it becomes again much narrower and lower. But from this part to the end nothing occurs which is particularly deſerving of remark.

'The whole length of this ſubterraneous paſſage is ſaid to be ſeven hundred and fifty yards; and attempts have been made to extend it farther, from an expectation of opening a communication with another cavern. But though ſeveral yards of the rock have been blaſted away, all efforts for this purpoſe have hitherto proved unſucceſsful. However, about ſix years ago, at a ſmall diſtance from the end of the old paſſage, a new one was diſcovered. Its length is about an hundred and ſixty-four yards. But it is not equal in either height or width to that which has been deſcribed.'

Our author afterwards gives a particular account of the mines of lead, iron, calamine, copper, and coal, with the method of working each.

By inſcriptions on ſeveral blocks of lead which have been found in this county, it is unqueſtionable that the lead-mines in Derbyſhire were worked by the Romans. It appears that, from the year 1758 to 1783, the Gregory mine at Aſhover alone yielded lead to the value of 105,986*l.* 0*s.* 3½*d.* and that during this period it produced, upon an average, 1511 tons annually. The quantity of iron which is annually produced in this county has likewiſe been of late very conſiderable. At preſent it amounts to about 5600 tons. The Right Rev. Dr. Watſon ſays, in his Chemical Eſſays, that the calamine annually raiſed in Derbyſhire amounts to about 1500 tons, though ſixty years ago it did not produce 40 tons a year. At what time this eſtimate was made is uncertain; but from the beſt information Mr. Pilkington could obtain, there does not appear to be more than 500 tons, at preſent, annually collected from the ſeveral places where calamine is found. Copper ore has yet been found only in very ſmall quantity in Derbyſhire. What coal is got in this

this county every year, it is ſcarcely poſſible to aſcertain with exactneſs; but the quantity muſt be very large; for beſides what is conſumed in the neighbouring country, a conſiderable quantity is conveyed by the Erewaſh canal into Leiceſterſhire. The quantity of plaſter-ſtone annually raiſed at Chellaſton pits is about 800 tons. Theſe various ſources of natural riches in Derbyſhire cannot but prove highly valuable.

This county is likewiſe remarkable for native and extraneous foſſils. The latter are extremely worthy of notice, on account both of their amazing number and variety. They occur in almoſt every part of Derbyſhire. The mountains of limeſtone, which extend through the High and Low Peak, abound with marine productions. Entrochi, a ſpecies of ſtar-fiſh, are found almoſt every where. Our author has ſeen continued beds of them, above twenty miles in length. The number of anomiæ is prodigious. The cone in cone corraloid is found, in a bed ten inches deep, on the ſurface of the ſhell marble at Tupton near Wingerworth. The cone is exceedingly diſtinct; and is likewiſe found in great abundance in other parts of the county. Corraloids, reſembling that which is found in the Red-Sea, are frequent; as are alſo madrepores, millepores, tubipores, fungitæ, conic fungitæ, aſtroites, porpites, retepores, the ſea-fan, and a variety of other ſpecies.

Among the animals and inſects there occurs a ſmall alligator in the black marble at Aſhford, The tail and back of a crocodile are ſaid to have been found at Aſhford, and to be preſerved in a cabinet at Bruſſels. Groups of flies have been found in black marble at the ſame place; with a beetle in iron-ſtone, and a butterfly in the ſame, at Swanwick. Many vegetable impreſſions are likewiſe to be found in different parts.

We afterwards meet with an account of the medicinal waters and baths, rivers, navigable canals, agriculture, produce, animals, and birds, of the county. Our author informs us, concerning the otter, that a few years ago one was brought up tame at Eckington. The Rev. Mr. Pegge told him that he ſaw it twice or three times; once in the water, where it caught a large eel, with which in its mouth it ſwam about ſome time. It was as tame and harmleſs as a lap-dog, and would come when called.

In the ſecond volume the author takes a general view of the ancient and modern ſtate of Derbyſhire, with its government, civil policy, and religion, at different periods. He appears likewiſe to have been at much pains in endeavouring to aſcertain the preſent ſtate of population in the county. The reſult of his inquiries is, that the number of houſes now in Derbyſhire is 25,206, and of inhabitants 124,465. In that part of the county

where the buſineſs of the lead-mines is carried on, it is ſuppoſed by ſome that the number of inhabitants is ſmaller than it was fifty years ago. But we are aſſured that even in thoſe ſituations population is now much revived; and in other places it is conſiderably greater than it ever was at any former period. Wherever Mr. Pilkington has had opportunities of procuring the neceſſary information, he has given a comparative view of the ſtate of births and burials; from which it appears highly probable that the inhabitants of Derbyſhire are continually increaſing in number.

The manufactures carried on in Derbyſhire are various and extenſive. Thoſe chiefly cultivated are ſilk, cotton, wool, and iron. We are told that the firſt, which is confined almoſt to the town of Derby, affords employment to about fifteen hundred hands. Cotton is manufactured in different parts of the county, with the machine invented by Sir Richard Arkwright. Several having been conſtructed upon that model, the number of machines which are now worked in this county is ſixteen, and the hands employed by them may be computed at three thouſand. A conſiderable quantity of cotton is likewiſe ſpun upon hand machines, or wheels, in the north-weſt part of the county, beſides looms for weaving cotton; of the latter of which the number is computed to be at preſent about two hundred.

A large quantity of wool likewiſe is manufactured in Derbyſhire both into ſtockings and cloth. The buſineſs of hoſiery is carried on extenſively in that part of the county which borders upon Nottinghamſhire, and alſo at Litton near Tideſwell. The author has endeavoured to aſcertain the number of frames employed, and believes them to amount to about 1350. But this calculation includes thoſe upon which ſilk and cotton, as well as wool, are wrought.

In that part of the High Peak which borders upon Yorkſhire, a ſmall quantity of wool is manufactured into cloth; and in the north-eaſt part of the county the manufacture of iron is conſiderable. But the principal manufacture of this metal is carried on in the neighbourhood of Sheffield; where nearly three hundred hands are employed chiefly in making ſcythes and ſickles. Beſides theſe, ſome other inferior manufactures are mentioned as exiſting in this county, which appears to be at preſent in a very flouriſhing ſtate, both with reſpect to its native and artificial productions.

The author proceeds next to take a particular view of the ancient and preſent ſtate of towns, villages, churches, religious houſes, caſtles, ſeats, families, &c. In this ſurvey of the county he follows the eccleſiaſtical diviſions of it into deaneries; but we cannot afford to accompany him on ſo extenſive a progreſs.

Though

Though Mr. Pilkington has, for good reasons, omitted some parts of his proposed investigation, he has prosecuted others with much industry; and there is every reason to be satisfied that he has given a faithful, and, for the purpose of utility, a sufficiently ample account of the present state of Derbyshire.

ART. IX. *The Farm-House; a Comedy in Three Acts. As altered by J. P. Kemble, and first acted at the Theatre-Royal, Drury-Lane, May* 1, 1789. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. London, 1790.

THIS elegant little performance is sprightly in its dialogue, interesting in events, and no where wearies the attention of the reader. We need not add how much it must be improved by representation when the charming Mrs. Jordan has the following dialogue allotted to her:

'ACT III. SCENE I. *A Grove.*

'*Enter* Modely.

'*Modely.* A fine evening, really, for a cool thrust or two. Where is the warrior that is to entertain me here? Egad, I wish 'twas over; I don't like it; it sits but qualmishly upon my stomach. Oh! yonder he comes cross the style. Ho, that's a boy, I think; I suppose he has sent some formal excuse: the women have lock'd him up; the country is rais'd; and the justices have sent their warrants forth to stop all military proceedings, and make up the matter over a cup of October.

'*Enter* Aura *in Boy's Clothes.*

'*Aura.* Your servant, Sir.

'*Modely.* Your's, Sir.

'*Aura.* I am invited hither, Sir, to do justice to an injured beauty [herself], whom I have the honour to be well with; and I suppose you are my man.

'*Modely.* Thy man, lovey! and what then?

'*Aura.* Why then, Sir, on the behalf of that fair one, I demand the honourable amends, Sir. To use violence to a lady, is an affront not to be put up with. To tear the boughs, and offer to haul down the fruit before it was consenting kindly ripe. If you had climbed up the ladder of her affections, and gathered it regularly with the consent of the owner, there had been no harm done.

'*Modely.* Hah! thou art a very pretty metaphorical prigster. Hark ye, child, go home presently, or I'll gather a handful of nettles under that hedge, and whip thee most unmercifully.

'*Aura.* I shall whip you through the guts, or make a pair of bellows of your lungs, for this arrogance. What are your weapons?

'*Modely.* Nettletops, infant; nettletops.

'*Aura.* What are you for your country diversions of this sort—flails, cudgels, scythes, back-swords, oakin-towels, or wrestling?

'*Modely.* Would'ſt thou have me wreſtle with a bulruſh?

'*Aura.* Ah! I have brought a ſtouter man than you down before now. Or are you for the town gallantries, ſingle rapier, ſword and dagger, ſword and piſtol, ſingle piſtol, blunderbuſs, demi-cannon, culverin, mortar-piece, or a barrel of gunpowder. I am ready at any of theſe weapons to wait your commands.

'*Modely.* Look thee, thou impertinent inſect; thou may'ſt be troubleſome, though thou canſt not be hurtful; therefore, if thou flyeſt about my face thus, I ſhall be forced to pat thee down with my hand, and tread thee out.

'*Aura.* Humph! You are very pert.

'*Modely.* I am ſo. Pray tell me though, what intereſt have you in this lady, that ſhe has engaged your haughty littleneſs in her affairs?

'*Aura.* Who I, Sir? Oh! I have been her firſt miniſter a great while. She is a fine woman really, conſidering ſhe has been ruſticated from her birth too. Her only fault is, poor creature, ſhe is doatingly fond of me.

'*Modely.* Indeed! And ſo thou art her playfellow, her gentle refreſhment, her pretty pillow boy, her afternoon's cordial, and her tea at breakfaſt; her evening's ſlumber, and her morning's indolence.

'*Aura.* Sir, the reputation of a lady is not thus impiouſly to be ſported with. Oons! eat your words; up with 'em again this moment, or I'll ram 'em down your throat with the hilt of my ſword.

'*Modely.* Cool thyſelf, Narciſſus; cool thyſelf, child; relieve thy reaſon with a dram of reflection. 'Tis the town talk; the whole village, and all the pariſhes round, ring of it. I am ſure thou wouldſt not die a martyr to falſehood. Why thy engagements there are known to every body; 'tis no ſecret, my prettyneſs.

'*Aura.* Ay, Sir, 'tis true; but 'tis not ſo gallant to enter into particulars of that ſort. Though, as you ſay indeed, I am ſenſible 'tis no ſecret. The affair has made a noiſe; the fury of the poor creature's paſſion did now and then blind her diſcretion. I think this is the ſeventh duel I have engaged in for her ſake already. The ſeventh, no, the eighth. There were three juſtices, two exciſemen, a parſon, the apothecary, and yourſelf.

'*Modely.* Thou art the moſt impudent, wicked, little, bragging, lying ſon of a whore that ever I met with.

'*Aura.* Demme, Sir, ſon of a whore in your teeth! What, becauſe I have reprieved you, ſuffered you to breathe a minute or two longer, while I diverted you with my gallantries, you grow inſolent.

'*Modely.* Thou art a very popgun charged with air.

'*Aura.* And thou art a wooden blunderbuſs without any charge at all.

'*Modely.* Thou moſt inſignificant teazing terrier; by heaven, if thou doſt provoke me, I will cut thee into minced meat, and have thee diſhed up for my miſtreſs's wedding dinner. [*Draws his ſword.*

'*Aura.*

'*Aura.* *(Preſenting a piſtol.)* Put up your ſword; put it up I ſay; 'ſdeath, Sir, this inſtant, or you die. *(Modely ſheaths his ſword.)* So! ſo!

'*Modely.* Ha! what have you theſe tricks too, my little bully!

'*Aura.* Very well; now you have obeyed me, I'll uſe you like a gentleman. You have a longer reach than I, and therefore it may not be ſo reaſonable to engage with ſingle ſword. Here, take one of theſe; this, or this *(offering piſtols)*. You may change it, or draw it and recharge it, if you ſuſpect my honour.

'*Modely.* *(Taking a piſtol.)* How are they loaded?

'*Aura.* Equally, Sir, with a brace of balls.

'*Modely.* *(Aſide)* What can be the meaning of all this? Sure the young dog is not in earneſt.'

The reſt of the dialogue is not inferior to this ſpecimen, and often in proportion as it comes nearer to common life has more merit, by keeping equally clear of vulgarity and dullneſs.

ART. X. *An Inquiry into the Small-Pox, medical and political; wherein a ſucceſsful Method of treating that Diſeaſe is propoſed, the Cauſe of Pits explained, and the Method of their Prevention pointed out; with an Appendix, repreſenting the preſent State of Small-Pox. By Robert Walker, M. D. Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons, Edinb.* 8vo. 6s. boards. Murray, London; Creech, Edinburgh. 1790.

[*Concluded.*]

IN the twelfth chapter the author treats of the uſe and abuſe of opiates in the ſmall-pox. It happens fortunately for the theory which Dr. Walker has endeavoured to eſtabliſh upon facts, that as the frequent uſe of opiates would contribute to the retention of the contagious particles, which to expel from the habit is the great object of his attention; ſo recourſe to thoſe medicines becomes unneceſſary. 'By a ſteady attention to this 'courſe,' ſays he,

'The exciting cauſe of every bad ſymptom being gradually carried off, we ſhall find little or no occaſion for the uſe of opiates in any ſtage of the diſeaſe. It is ſcarcely to be credited how much natural reſt is obtained, even in the worſt caſes of ſmall-pox, by purſuing the cool regimen, with the daily purging courſe, from the commencement of the diſeaſe. The celebrated Tiſſot, who is one of the few authors that oppoſe the general exhibition of opiates in ſmall-pox, is of opinion that even natural ſleep is hurtful in this diſeaſe; I can ſee no bad conſequence that can ariſe from quiet and natural ſleep in ſmall-pox; it is indeed ſeldom obtained, becauſe the common method of treating the diſeaſe prevents it; and Sydenham's,

or even Morton's repetition of opiates, till the patient is ſeemingly quieted, can produce no other than a diſturbed and oppreſſive ſlumber, from the two great fulneſs and diſtention of the veſſels, as well as from the rarefaction of the fluids contained in them. If this is the caſe, we plainly ſee how theſe oppreſſive ſlumbers may be prevented, viz, by purſuing the antiphlogiſtic courſe; for by plentiful bleeding, and daily purging, the patient is gradually diſpoſed to ſoft and quiet reſt, in proportion to the emptying of the veſſels; and ſleep obtained in this way, is ſo far from being pernicious in any period of ſmall-pox, that it is of the greateſt uſe in promoting the kindly maturation of the puſtules; whereas it is found in experience that long watchfulneſs, or the want of refreſhing reſt, interrupts this good effect, and increaſes the inflammation of the puſtules, and irritation upon the whole nervous ſyſtem.'

A very important period of the ſmall-pox, namely, the ſecondary fever, comes next under our author's conſideration. In treating of this ſubject, he begins with ſhewing the cauſes aſſigned for the ſecondary fever by ſome of the beſt writers on the diſeaſe, and he offers objections to the common received doctrine upon this head, which is, that the variolous pus contained in the puſtules is abſorbed into the blood. The following are the reaſons for which Dr. Walker diſſents from this opinion; and it muſt be acknowledged that they claim no ſmall conſideration:

'1ſt. At the commencement of this fever, and for ſome days after, we may obſerve that moſt of the puſtules, excepting ſuch as may have burſted by preſſure, &c. are replete with pus, and incapable of containing more. Had abſorption in any degree taken place, we might expect a proportional depletion of the puſtules within the above period; but this is not the caſe, either on the body or extremities; and before this time the puſtules on the face are generally ſo much encruſted, that little or no moiſture can be abſorbed from them: beſides, many ſmall-pox caſes occur, where the ſecondary fever runs its courſe for ſome days, and terminates ſucceſsfully, leaving the puſtules on the body and extremities nearly in the ſame ſtate they were at the commencement of the fever, which ſhews it did not originate from the matter of the puſtules being abſorbed into the ſyſtem.

'2d. The doctrine of the abſorption of variolous pus from the puſtules into the blood, after it has been depoſited in them for eight days, is contrary to the common courſe and order of nature, as it occurs in other cutaneous eruptions; more eſpecially in ſuch as have been thrown out from the circulating maſs, by means of previous fever, and may ſtrictly be called *critical*.

'3d. In all thoſe caſes where the ſecondary fever occurs, and no diarrhœa intervenes, nor early evacuations ſubſtituted to carry off the exceſs of contagious fluids; but, on the contrary, where a practice has been adopted, every way calculated to promote not only the ſwelling of the head, face, and fauces, but the general tumefaction of

of the body. In these circumstances, it is not easy to conceive how absorption of the pus from the pustules can take place; the whole series of vessels, sanguinary and lymphatic, being considerably distended, and of consequence the skin kept in a state of inflammation, all which effects must concur in preventing an absorption.

'We apprehend no absorption can take place where the vessels in general are full and distended, some degree of inanition of the vessels being necessary to promote the absorption of our fluids, either in respect to a general plenitude, or when they are deposited in any particular part; the experience of practitioners demonstrates this.

'4th. To what has been advanced upon this argument, we shall subjoin another consideration, taken from the condition of the pus in the pustules at this period, which renders its absorption still more improbable.

'The tenacity and consistence of the variolous pus at that period when the secondary fever commences, renders it improbable that it can be received within the mouths of the absorbents. It will appear obvious to every one who has attended to this circumstance, that from the formation of pus in the pustules, but especially for two days before their complete maturation, that there is, more or less, a daily exsudation of the thinner parts of the pus from the pustules; this is evident from their change of colour, and the gritty roughness that is to be felt on their apices; it is likewise demonstrated from the morbid effluvia being more discernible at this period, than in any of the former stages; and that at this time infection is more readily communicated than at any other. We may likewise judge of this fact from the aptitude of the pustules on the face to form into dry and solid crusts. If, therefore, there is a transudation of the thinner parts of the pus from the pustules, what remains will be left in such a state of viscidity as will render it incapable of being absorbed.'

The author next inquires whether the retained perspirable matter has any influence in the production of the secondary fever, as is commonly imagined. He observes, that when the far greater part of the surface of the body is covered with maturated pustules, it may be considered by some as giving a check to the secretion of insensible perspiration; 'but if this is 'the true cause of the secondary fever,' says he, 'it must have 'operated in producing this effect long before the eleventh 'day.' He contends that if a numerous eruption of pustules prevents a discharge of the perspirable matter, it must produce this effect soon after the eruption is completed; the consequence of which will be, that, instead of an abatement of fever, which more or less takes place upon the eruption being completed, there must, from an accumulation of perspirable matter retained in the system, be a constantly progressive increase of fever several days before the eleventh, which seldom or never happens. The opinion that a retention of perspirable matter is the cause of the secondary fever, our author farther invalidates by observing

that, though the body is covered with variolous puſtules, it does not appear that theſe altogether interrupt inſenſible perſpiration; as the peculiar fœtor which always accompanies the ſmall-pox, eſpecially the worſt kinds, plainly contradict the exiſtence of any ſuch effect.

Dr. Walker next endeavours to point out the apparent origin of the ſecondary fever, in a conſiſtency with his theory of the diſeaſe. His opinion is, that the ſecondary fever being always connected with an extenſive aſſimilation and a numerous crop of ſmall-pox, it is occaſioned by an exceſs of contagious fluids ſtill remaining in the ſyſtem, and ſupporting a conſtant irritation. Other arguments are advanced by our author in confirmation of this doctrine; but we have already extended the preſent article to an unuſual length.

In three ſubſequent chapters the author treats reſpectively of the theory and prevention of pits, of ulcerations in conſequence of ſmall-pox, and of advantages ariſing from the preceding mode of treating the worſt kinds of the diſeaſe. Much practical and uſeful obſervation occurs in the proſecution of theſe ſubjects; and in an appendix, repreſenting the preſent ſtate of the ſmall-pox, the author, from a view of the cauſes of its frequency and mortality, propoſes ſome means of ſtill farther reducing the number of deaths. Of this we ſhall only ſay that his political as well as his medical obſervations are entitled to particular attention.

We cannot conclude our account of this intereſting work without acknowledging, in juſtice to the author, that we have peruſed it with great ſatisfaction. Falſe hypotheſes in phyſic have often been known to be ſupported by plauſible arguments; but the ſyſtem produced by Dr. Walker is certainly recommended by a peculiar aſſemblage of juſt and ſtrong conſiderations. It is difficult to ſay whether his theory be more indebted for its origin to ingenuity, or to a multiplicity of concurring facts and practical obſervations with which it is powerfully maintained. He has unqueſtionably examined the validity of his own doctrine with equal learning, candour, and judgment; and nothing ſeems wanting to its perfect eſtabliſhment, but that the method of cure which he recommends may prove as ſucceſsful with other practitioners as it has evidently done with himſelf. The beſt effects may be expected from a treatment enforced with ſo much uſeful obſervation.

ART.

ART. XI. *False Appearances*; *a Comedy. Altered from the French, and performed at the Theatre-Royal, Drury-Lane. By the Right Hon. General Conway.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett. London, 1789.

WHEN ladies and gentlemen act comedies they ſhould doubtleſs be written on purpoſe for them, and they ſhould be perfect in their kind. Falſe Appearances, tranſlated from the Dehors Trompeurs of M. Biſſy, has certainly no faults. But we are told in its original ſtate, however, abounding in a refined turn of wit, and by no means deficient in attic ſalt, it was ſuppoſed to want ſome of the Cayenne humour which makes the neceſſary ſeaſoning for an Engliſh audience. We confeſs the wit is too much refined for our coarſe conceptions, and the ſalt is too judiciouſly applied to be any where predominant. To ſuit it ſtill better to the upper regions, an abbé is added; but though, in the hands of Mr. John Banniſter, he may be made a very comical fellow, he affords very little amuſement in the cloſet. After all, the characters are natural, the incidents ſuch as might be expected in common life, the moral perſpicuous, and adapted to the comic muſe, the dialogue chaſte, and the cataſtrophe deſirable. But if Horace's idea of *ut pictura poeſis* be juſt, this is not all we expect, or rather not all the critic will admit in dramatic performances. In pictures where the painter is left to his own fancy for the choice of his ſubject and figures, we expect him to repreſent nature to the greateſt advantage. We allow a regular caſt of features, a ſweetneſs of countenance, and a degree of expreſſion we never ſee aſſembled in nature, and which perhaps, were we to ſee it, might be leſs pleaſing than what we expect by its repreſentation. Thus in comedy we admit a brilliancy of dialogue, a ſtrength and variety of character we ſeldom expect ſhould meet under ſimilar circumſtances. And however we may fancy that with this latitude, it will not be difficult at any time to make a good play; a little reflection will teach us how much artifice and contrivance muſt be neceſſary to cover the deluſion under theſe diſadvantages. It has been ſaid the French plays have ever been dull for want of variety of character; but we would rather impute it to an affected refinement of taſte, or a too great ſeverity of criticiſm. Whatever be the true caſe, we may juſtly conſider *Falſe Appearances* as a model of modern French comedy, viz. a too cloſe repreſentation of the dull ſcenes of life among the ſuperior claſſes. Thus, though we allow there is nothing to cenſure, we ſhall in vain attempt to find any thing to praiſe.

ART.

ART. XII. *Antiquities of Great-Britain, illuſtrated in Views of Monaſteries, Caſtles, and Churches, now exiſting. Engraved from Drawings made by Thomas Hearne.* Printed by James Phillips, Lombard-Street, publiſhed by T. Hearne and W. Byrne. Long Folio. Vol. I. conſiſting of Thirteen Numbers, at 10s. 6d. per Number. London, 1786.

IT muſt give pleaſure to every lover of the arts to ſee the progreſs they make, and the encouragement they receive. We hope that encouragement will not in the end deſtroy what it means to foſter. It is in the power of artiſts, and only in *their* power, to prevent this evil. True to their art, they ſhould never ſacrifice it to bad taſte, or immediate profit. In whatever ſtyle they excel, their productions in *that ſtyle* ſhould aim at pleaſing the real judge, and not the vulgar and unknowing eye. In reviewing a work of the kind now before us, theſe reflections naturally occurred; for there is certainly great danger when works of art become a conſiderable object of trade (which is now the caſe) that the artiſt will think of what *will* ſell, more than of what *ſhould* ſell.

With reſpect to the production now under review, we hope we may congratulate Meſſrs. Hearne and Byrne on the ſucceſs of their united labours, as their work is highly deſerving of public patronage. Something of this kind had been attempted by Hollar; and, as far as exactneſs in the forms, and neatneſs of execution go, he deſerved praiſe; but he wanted taſte, and many other requiſites; he could copy nature, but knew not to catch her, if we may be allowed the expreſſion, in her moſt *proper* and *pleaſing attitudes*; his fore-grounds are always heavy, and in every reſpect deſpicable; none of his views can be ſaid to form a picture. Mr. Hearne, on the contrary, adds to truth of delineation the merit of giving a pleaſing effect to his views. By chooſing what we term the proper attitude of his ſubject, and by a ſcientific diſtribution of light and ſhade, his views in general appear like *compoſitions*, where the parts had been ſelected and arranged by a judicious painter. By his choice of the proper attitude he has attained another excellence, which is not only to give the form, but the *character* of the object. Whoever examines his repreſentation of the caſtle of Edinburgh in this view, will find that he has given it, by this choice of attitude, that rugged and abrupt appearance which ſeems to breathe defiance, which is the diſtinctive character of the object, and which, in all the views of it we had before ſeen, we could not diſcern.

To

To Mr. Byrne's ſhare of the work much commendation is due; a congenial ſpirit ſeems to have animated both artiſts. The neatneſs of the engraving will recommend the 'Antiquities of Great-Britain' to thoſe who are not capable of reliſhing their other merits; and the connoiſſeur will ſeldom find that force and freedom have been ſacrificed to high finiſhing.

The other artiſts, who have been employed in a few of theſe views, have exerted themſelves with commendable emulation, and executed their taſks much to their credit.

The work conſiſts of fifty views, with a beautiful frontiſpiece of the weſt-front of Malmſbury Abbey, and Stonehenge as a tail-piece. A ſhort hiſtorical account in French and Engliſh accompanies each plate.

ART. XIII. *Foreign Literary Intelligence.*

THE German chemiſt, Mr. Weſtrumb, has made ſome beautiful diſcoveries with regard to ſpontaneous inflammation. If the filings of antimony, arſenic, biſmuth, nickel, cobalt, tin, lead, copper, or lead, be mixed with volatile alkali, and thrown into oxygenated muriatic acid, they will inſtantly emit a ſtream of fire. Mr. Weſtrumb conſiders this curious fact as favourable to the doctrine of phlogiſton. But it happens unfortunately that few of the late diſcoveries can be reckoned deciſive. The *experimentum crucis* has not yet been made, and the facts admit of a plauſible explanation from either hypotheſis. The preſent is an inſtance of double affinity. The attraction of the volatile alkali for the muriatic acid enables the metals, in the common temperature of the atmoſphere, to abſorb the exceſs of oxygen, and during the combination the caloric, or matter of heat which was latent in the gas, is evolved, and produces, by its rapid motion, the luminous appearance.

M. Geanty, member of the Royal Society of Sciences and Arts eſtabliſhed at Cape François, in the iſland of St. Domingo, tranſmitted vitriolic gas through milk, and by this means converted it into cheeſe. He reverſed the experiment, and reſtored the cheeſe to milk, by the application of alkaline gas. In his firſt trials the milk thus procured had an intolerable ſmell, but, by conducting the operation gradually, he was able to reſtore it to its original ſweetneſs and inodorous quality. Hence he derives an explanation of the effects of alkaline cataplaſms in removing pains and inflammations from the breaſts of nurſes.

M. Prouſt has diſcovered that camphor exiſts in conſiderable proportions in the eſſential oils of ſeveral plants growing in Murcia,

Murcia, in Spain. He detected this concrete ſubſtance by gently evaporating the oil of lavender, of ſage, of marjoram, and of roſemary; but if theſe be carefully diſtilled in a ſand-bath, the different products may be obtained without any ſenſible loſs. He conceives that the cultivation of lavender might become an object of national importance, and that the Spaniſh peaſants could be inſtructed to ſeparate the camphor with ſufficient accuracy and attention. To communicate whiteneſs and hardneſs, M. Prouſt adviſes the careful and gradual ſublimation of the camphor; and this is the proceſs he is aſſured which the Dutch employ.

Le Pere Cotte has publiſhed 'Memoires ſur la Meteorologie,' in two volumes quarto, intended as a continuation of an uſeful work which he gave to the world in 1774.

Captain de M. Donadæi has obſerved that ambergreaſe is frequently thrown, by the tide and violent ſtorms, upon the coaſts of Guyenne. The ſea-birds diſcover a great fondneſs for that ſubſtance. The foxes alſo devour it greedily, and, being unable to digeſt it, diſcharge it unaltered. In this ſtate ambergreaſe is ſometimes found in the woods, or at a diſtance from the water-mark.

M. de la Vieville, manufacturer at Marſeilles, has diſcovered a dye, preferable to Pruſſian blue, for ſtaining paper. He offers to ſell it at a livre the pound, and affirms that the ſaving would amount to one third.

M. Gengembre made the beautiful diſcovery that phoſphorus, diſſolved in hydrogenous gas, ſpontaneouſly inflamed from the contact of air. Meſſrs. Donadei and Pelletier diſtilled *calcareous phoſpate*, and, to the phoſphoric acid thus obtained, they added the oxygenous and nitrous gas, and an inſtantaneous exploſion was produced. The experiment muſt be repeated, and the circumſtances that accompany it accurately noted, before we can venture, with confidence, to give an explanation. It is probable, however, that, in this caſe, one portion of the nitrous gas imbibes oxygen from the oxygenous gas, and forms nitrous acid, and, its capacity being thus diminiſhed, it evolves a quantity of heat. At the ſame time, another portion of the nitrous gas abſtracts the oxygen from the phoſphoric acid, leaving phoſphorous, which is inflamed by the heat now generated, while the combuſtion is fed by the oxygenous gas.

Le Pere Cotte has publiſhed, in Rozier's Journal, a table of the mean diurnal variation of the magnetic needle, obſerved at Laon in 1789:

Hours.

Hours.	Mean Variation.
Morning.	
6	7° 46′ 39″
7	7° 40′ 14″
8	7° 29′ 27″
9	7° 39′ 30″
10	7° 51′ 28″
11	8° 10′ 3″
12	8° 33′ 10″
Afternoon.	
1	8° 41′ 18″
2	8° 41′ 50″
3	8° 28′ 1″
4	8° 22′ 46″
5	8° 8′ 49″
6	8° 51′ 50″
7	7° 59′ 3″
8	7° 44′ 45″
9	7° 42′ 8″

The greateſt variation during the year was 11° 24′ on the 27th of March, when there was an aurora borealis; the leaſt was 4° 20′, on the 16th of July. It appears that the greateſt diurnal variation is at two o'clock in the afternoon, and the leaſt at eight o'clock in the morning. It is curious that theſe are alſo nearly the *maximum* and *minimum* points of heat.

Dr. Dutrône la Couture has publiſhed at Paris a treatiſe, in octavo, upon the ſugar cane, and the method of extracting the eſſential ſalt; which, from the account we have ſeen of it, ſeems to be an excellent work. The Chineſe were acquainted, from the moſt remote ages, with the cultivation of the ſugar-cane, and the proceſs for obtaining the ſaccharine ſubſtance. Sugar ſeems to have been unknown to the Egyptians, the Phœnicians, and the Jews. The Greek phyſicians are the firſt who mention it, and under the name of *Indian ſalt*. It was imported along with the ſpiceries and other luxuries from the other ſide of the Ganges, to gratify the taſte of the opulent Romans. The ſugar-cane was introduced, in the thirteenth century, into Arabia, and ſucceſſively into Egypt, the kingdom of Morocco, Syria, Sicily, the iſland of Madeira, the iſland of St. Thomas, and in 1506 it was cultivated in St. Domingo. It is a native of the torrid zone, flowers in November or December, and continues in bloſſom for eighteen or twenty months, when it periſhes. Dr. Detrône examines particularly the ſtructure of the ſugar-cane, and traces the progreſs and gradual elaboration of the juice. The eſſential ſalt is diſturbed in its cryſtalliſation by the intermixture of mucilage, which it is the great object of the

ſugar

ſugar manufacturer to ſeparate. For this purpoſe alkalis and lime have been employed. Bergman ſuppoſed the uſe of this application was to ſaturate the acid, which he conceived abounds in the ſugar. But Dr. Detrône ſhews that theſe ſubſtances only purify the liquor, and that they combine with the mucilage and fæculæ, and detach them from the juice. The impurities which ſtill adhere to the liquor are deſtroyed by the application of an heat, riſing ſometimes above 250°. Dr. Detrône proceeds to deſcribe the proceſs of boiling, cryſtalliſing, &c. He next points out the improvements which he has made on the common practice, and which he has introduced with ſucceſs into the iſland of St. Domingo; but we ſhall probably have another opportunity of taking more particular notice of the ſubject.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

For APRIL 1790.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. 14. *Julia; a Novel, interſperſed with ſome poetical Pieces. By Helen Maria Williams.* 12mo. 2 vols. 6s. Cadell. London, 1790.

THE author of theſe volumes has already recommended herſelf to a conſiderable ſhare of the public favour by ſeveral ſpecimens of poetry. The work before us detracts nothing from the good opinion ſo generally entertained of her genius. The images of nature with which it abounds are affecting.

The ſtory is ſimple, not long, no where interrupted by foreign matter, and worked up by a chain of events finely invented and connected by a charm which cannot but faſcinate every reader of ſenſibility. Here, as is often the caſe in modern *novels*, we are ſhocked by no groſs pictures of immorality, characters that have no originals, or groups of monſters to intimidate the weak, or fill the vulgar with wonder. The whole relates to an affair of love, which is managed throughout with ſimplicity and innocence, though it may probably, in modern eſtimation, be deemed not the more natural for that circumſtance. Indeed no courtſhip was ever better conceived, or conducted with more addreſs. To ſome the parties may appear too virtuous; but, from the delicate point of view in which they are preſented to our attention, they do not poſſeſs more than is neceſſary to give us an intereſt in their fate. We cannot help alſo remarking, that the particular which of all others ſtrikes us as the leaſt probable is, the ignorance of Charlotte, who is the only injured perſon, and who, though conſtantly witneſs to the infidelity of the man ſhe loves, even with the friend of her heart, ſuſpects nothing of the matter

matter till made acquainted with the fact by the good-natured impertinence of a female friend.

The following ſhort extract will give the reader no unfavourable ſpecimen of Miſs Williams's deſcriptive powers. The object is common, but not always ſeen through the medium of genius. (Page 78, Vol. I.)

'On the evening of their arrival at the family ſeat Julia walked out with Charlotte, and felt with peculiar ſenſibility the beauties of nature. She had till now only ſeen the rich cultivated landſcapes of the ſouth of England, but her ardent imagination had often wandered amidſt the wild ſcenery of the north, and formed a high idea of pleaſure in contemplating its ſolemn aſpect; and ſhe found that the ſublime and awful graces of nature exceed even the dream of fancy. The ſetting ſun painted the glowing horizon with the moſt refulgent colours. Immediately above its broad orb, which was dazzling in brightneſs, hung a black cloud that formed a ſtriking contraſt to the luxuriant tints below; ſome of the hills were thrown into deep ſhadow, others reflected the ſetting beams. When the ſun ſunk below the horizon, every object gradually changed its hue. The form of the ſurrounding hills, and the ſhape of the darkening rocks that hung over the lake, became every moment more doubtful; till at length twilight ſpread over the whole landſcape that penſive gloom ſo ſoothing to an enthuſiaſtic fancy. Every other ſound was loſt in the fall of the torrent; a ſound which Julia had never heard before, and which ſeemed to ſtrike upon her ſoul, and call forth emotions congenial to its ſolemn cadence.'

Miſs Williams unwarily diſcovers the ſources of her reading and information by confining her quotations to plays and novels. We are not fond alſo of ſeeing even the beſt verſes employed in eking out compoſitions in proſe. The lines of Miſs Williams are by no means deſpicable, though they appear to us miſplaced. Such picadillos, however, if ſhe will permit us for once to copy her manner, are but as the moſt trivial ſpecks on a diamond of the firſt water.

ART. 15. *The Young Widow; or, The Hiſtory of Cornelia Sedley.* 12mo. 4 vols. 12s. ſewed. Robinſons. London, 1789.

Here are groups of lovers, a world of diſtreſſes, much wickedneſs, and ſome religion. No medley can boaſt greater variety in the materials of which theſe volumes are compoſed. The fable diſcovers invention, and the conduct of it proves the author not to be deficient in the powers of execution. The virtue which the beautiful Cornelia preſerves with ſo much fortitude and tenderneſs, exhibits to the young and giddy of her own ſex a moſt intereſting and impreſſive example of that divine triumph of which true piety only is capable; and the moſt volatile and romantic of ours may derive much valuable caution, in running the frantic career of pleaſure, from the ſufferings and fate of her lover. The whole of this very intereſting novel is worked up with great addreſs, and every where detailed in language glowing and nervous.

ART. 16. *Fashionable Infidelity; or, The Triumph of Patience.* 12mo. 3 vols. 9s. sewed. Hookham. London, 1789.

The business of these volumes is uncommonly deep and complicated. The author seems intimately acquainted with the vices and foibles of fashionable life, and copies them with correctness. His characters have great variety, are touched by the hand of a master, and, in some instances, perhaps betray too palpably the particular features they were meant to exhibit. The obvious intention of the performance is to expose that profusion of indiscriminate slander which malignity invents and propagates, and which stupidity believes, and has rendered mischievous in this country. Here such wickedness is properly exposed. The language of the work is elegant and sprightly, the observations are just and moral, and the story is so well told that few novels will, upon the whole, better repay the reader's perusal.

ART. 17. *The Relapse, or Myrtle Bank; a Novel.* 12mo. 2 vols. 5s. sewed. Stalker. London, 1789.

The profligacy which, under the fairest disguise, is delineated as practised in these volumes, we regard, as we trust every honest mind will, with real abhorrence. Our only consolation in the perusal was, that the tale is totally improbable, and that the whole of this monstrous and impure fabrication has no existence but in the polluted imagination of the author.

ART. 18. *The Mental Triumph; a sentimental Novel.* 12mo. 3 vols. 7s. 6d. sewed. Walter. London, 1789.

These volumes are written by a lady who, in her own opinion, as we learn from the title page, is the 'plainest of her sex.' And they are intended to shew the triumph of a well-cultivated understanding, under an exterior thus unfashionable, over the most finished beauty destitute of such accomplishments. There is something new in the idea; and the moral is certainly praiseworthy. However plain in person our authoress may think herself, she has her share of good-sense, and can write well. May these qualifications render her more lovely in the eyes of some worthy young man than she seems to be in her own!

ART. 19. *The Fair Hibernian.* 12mo. 2 vols. 6s. sewed. Robinsons. London, 1789.

These volumes are by no means destitute of business or interest. They contain more plots than one, and exhibit a great variety of characters. Those of Mrs. Wentworth and Miss O'Bryen are well supported. These ladies are often in situations peculiarly affecting. They are formed perhaps with too much sensibility for real life. And yet that dash of Romance which colours all their actions is the chief circumstance which heightens our concern in whatever affects them.

ART.

ART. 20. *Norman Tales. Translated from the French of Mr. Le Grand.* 12mo. 3s. sewed. Egertons, London, 1789.

These are interesting tales, and well translated. They have beauty, brevity, and simplicity, in their favour; and we know few books of light reading calculated to produce more real entertainment. They border, however, upon the dark ages, and are a counterpart in prose to Chaucer's Tales in verse.

ART. 21. *Lines on a late Resignation at the Royal Academy.* 4to. 6d. Robson. London, 1790.

A well-meant compliment to Sir Joshua Reynolds, whose merits as an artist and a man every one, who is capable of appreciating his worth, is ready to acknowledge. The cause which produced the 'Lines' is now removed, the president has resumed the chair, and we hope that the late *fracas* will be entirely forgotten. 'Brother, brother, we were both in the wrong.'

As to the lines themselves, they fall under Horace's well-known condemnation, for they do not rise above *mediocrity*.

ART. 22. *The Abbey of Ambresbury; a Poem. Part II. By Samuel Birch, Author of Convilia, &c.* 4to. 2s. Cadell. London, 1789.

The first part of the Abbey of Ambresbury appeared in our Review for September 1788. To that we could not give our approbation; and we find nothing in the second part to induce us to give a more favourable decision. Amidst the languid uniformity of the whole, a happy expression sometimes appears; but it is only a momentary gleam, which is soon lost in the general obscurity.

ART. 23. *Le Paradis reconquis; Poem imité de Milton. Par L. R. Lafaye, gradué en l'Université de Paris, et Maitre de Langue Françoise.* 12mo. 3s. J. Bell. Londres, 1789.

ART. 23. *Paradise Regained, imitated from Milton, &c.*

The translation of poetry is always a work of the utmost difficulty, which many men of genius have tried without success. It is therefore far from surprising that Mr. Lafaye should have failed in his translation or imitation of Milton, whose extraordinary or sublime ideas seem to forbid their being expressed in any language but his own. We cannot think that the translator, or rather imitator, has succeeded in giving dignity to his blank verse. The Marotic style he has adopted seems the opposite to dignity. It was a hardy attempt too of Mr. Lafaye to mix so much of his own with the original ore of our British Homer; we cannot flatter him with being successful in this attempt.

Too much cannot be said in favour of the paper and letter-press; both do great justice to the publisher.

ART. 24. *Thoughts, in the Form of Maxims, addreſſed to young Ladies on their firſt Eſtabliſhment in the World. By the Counteſs Dowager of Carliſle.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. ſewed. Cornell. London, 1789.

We have peruſed theſe maxims with much pleaſure; they are the production of a well-informed and benevolent mind, and are well ſuited to the purpoſe for which they were intended. Without that epigrammatic point which moſt writers of maxims are ſo fond of, the author has with plainneſs and perſpicuity given directions to young ladies for their conduct in every ſituation of life. We have only to add, that we hope our young countrywomen will profit by the good ſenſe and experience of their amiable teacher.

ART. 25. *Strictures on Duelling, ſelected from the moſt authentic Authors; with Additions by a Gentleman, late of the Univerſity of Oxford.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Walter. London, 1789.

Every day affords freſh inſtances of the melancholy effects reſulting to ſociety from the crime which is the ſubject of this pamphlet. The author expoſes, with much force of argument, the falſe pretences of honour on which this barbarous practice is founded; and makes many juſt obſervations, both on its political and moral criminality. We wiſh that his well-meant and laudable endeavours for reſtraining ſo flagrant an outrage may not prove entirely abortive.

ART. 26. *The Life of the late John Elwes, Eſq. Member in three ſucceſſive Parliaments for Berkſhire. By Edward Topham, Eſq.* 8vo. 3s. Ridgeway. London, 1790.

Mr. Elwes, whoſe life is republiſhed in this pamphlet, was, we may ſafely ſay, without exception, the moſt extraordinary character of the age. With a fortune of upwards of half a million ſterling, he rigorouſly denied himſelf the comforts, and almoſt even the neceſſaries, of life. A frequenter of the moſt faſhionable reſorts of gaming, he punctually paid all his loſſes at play; but of thoſe from whom he gained any ſum, however conſiderable, if they did not of themſelves make him payment, he religiouſly abſtained from demanding it. In ſhort, he appears to have been ſuch a compound of penurioufneſs and generoſity, of honour and avarice, as almoſt exceeds credibility. His life is written by Mr. Topham, from perſonal knowledge, as well as much information; and, on account of the curious anecdotes it contains, cannot fail to prove intereſting.

MEDICAL.

ART. 27. *A Review of the Medical Department in the Britiſh Navy, with a Method of Reform propoſed. In a Letter to the Right Hon. the Earl of Chatham. By Thomas Trotter, M. D.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Bew. London, 1790.

The author of this pamphlet offers ſeveral objections to the mode in which the buſineſs relative to the ſurgical department in the navy is at preſent conducted. In the firſt place, he diſapproves of navy ſurgeons being examined by a board of the ſurgeons corporation in London. Among the rules which have been adopted by this board, there

there is, it seems, one which compels every person to officiate for six months as a mate, before he can become a candidate for a surgeon's qualification. This restriction, the author observes, is a severe check on every young man aspiring at promotion. He admits it may be proper to give candidates an opportunity of learning forms of service; but to suppose that, in the time abovementioned, and situated in the cockpit of a man of war, they can much increase their professional knowledge, is, he thinks, ridiculous to an extreme. After painting, in strong colours, the bad effects of this institution, he proposes that mates should be allowed to pass at once for surgeons, if found duly qualified; and six months of actual service may then be imposed before they can be promoted. Many other objections, and those too, it must be acknowledged, of great weight, are made by the author against the present mode of examination; but we cannot afford room for detailing them.

The next objection urged by the author relates to the supply of medicines, which, according to the regulation at present in force, are furnished by the company of apothecaries hall in London. He affirms that the supply of medicines from this quarter has been attended not only with inconvenience, but the most hazardous consequences, on distant stations. Surgeons, he observes, must be often ignorant, and unable to foresee the exigencies of service. A ship ordered to prepare in a few hours for a foreign voyage, cannot expect the necessary supplies from Apothecaries Hall on this sudden emergency; and must therefore sail without them. When abroad it has often happened that orders from home have miscarried; and, to the loss of surgeons, vessels bringing them out have fallen into the enemies hands, while the ships that wanted them were in the most sickly situations. The author, after endeavouring to shew the absurdity, as well as impolicy, of the present method of furnishing his majesty's ships with medicines, proceeds to offer a plan for remedying those inconveniencies; and, as nearly as possible, consistent with the forms and constitution of naval service.

Dr. Trotter afterwards considers additional articles necessary for the sick on board of ships, with the regulations relative to venereal patients, and some other important objects of attention. On the whole, we think he fully evinces the expediency of a reform in the surgical department in the navy; and the observations which he suggests have a very strong claim to attention.

DIVINITY.

ART. 28. *A Vindication of the Doctrines and Liturgy of the Church of England; in Answer to a Pamphlet entitled Hints to the New Association, &c.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett. London, 1790.

It often happens in controversy that a cause is benefited even by the violence of an opponent; and this remark seems to be likewise exemplified in the present dispute. The author of 'Hints to the New Association,' by endeavouring to expose the doctrines and liturgy of the Church of England to reprehension, had ascribed to them very improbable effects on the general manners of the times.

The writer now before us vindicates them from this injurious aſperſion; and imputes the immorality of the age to very different, and certainly far more probable ſources. On this principle he recommends to the legiſlature to promote a law for the complete ſuppreſſion of all public gaming-houſes, and for the reſtriction of luxury in general. We doubt not, however, that by many he will be thought as violent in the reformation he propoſes, as his antagoniſt is in the charge which he brings againſt the doctrines and liturgy of the church.

ART. 29. *A Letter to the Rev. Dr. White, containing Remarks upon certain Paſſages in the Notes ſubjoined to his Bampton Lectures. By Philalethes. Dedicated to the Uſe of Dr. White's Admirers.* 8vo. 1s. Johnſon. London, 1789.

In a note on a paſſage of the Bampton lectures it is ſaid, 'The objections of both Mahometans and Socinians to the ſublime myſtery of the Trinity proceed on the ſame preſumptions—an appeal to reaſon.' Philalethes contends that this is not true with reſpect to the Socinians, for that they appeal to ſcripture explained by reaſon. Setting out from this point, the letter-writer endeavours to prove that the doctrines of the *Trinity* and of Chriſt's *mediation* and *ſatisfaction* are not ſcripture doctrines. The pamphlet is written with ſufficient acuteneſs, but contains nothing which has not been repeatedly urged upon the ſubject. How long, forgetting the mild ſpirit of the goſpel, will men combat with heat and acrimony about the *metaphyſics* of Chriſtianity? Both the orthodox and their opponents agree that there is but one God, whom they worſhip; that he is juſt, good, and merciful; and that he has promiſed happineſs to thoſe who ſincerely endeavour to obey his commands. So far both agree; and if in *all* things they cannot think alike, why ſhould this be a cauſe of bitter contention, and diſturb the peace of ſociety? True Chriſtianity is not ſhewn by the ſubtlety of dialectics; our great Lawgiver has taught us better; 'By this ſhall all men know that you are my diſciples, if you love one another.'

ART. 30. *Maxims of Piety and of Chriſtianity. By the late Right Rev. Thomas Wilſon, D.D. Lord Biſhop of Sodor and Man.* 12mo. 2s. 6d. Cruttwell, Bath; Dilly, London. 1789.

Theſe maxims have been before printed in the quarto edition of Dr. Wilſon's works. With a view of extending their ſalutary influence they are now printed ſeparately, that being within the reach of readers of every deſcription they may be more generally peruſed.

We need hardly obſerve that they contain all that piety for which the writings of his lordſhip are ſo eminently diſtinguiſhed. But maxims, though they ſtrike the mind for a moment with much force, ſeem to do it rather by a correſpondence of ſentiment between the reader and author than by their informing us of any thing not known before. Thus the impreſſion is lively, but not laſting; for neither is the reaſon convinced of any new propoſition, nor are the paſſions engaged

engaged on its ſide, but the ſimilarity of opinion affords a momentary gratification to the mind.

If we were diſpoſed to be captious we ſhould object to the title, as ſeeming to make a diſtinction between piety and Chriſtianity.

ART. 31. *A Letter to the Right Rev. Lewis, by Divine Permiſſion, Lord Biſhop of Norwich, requeſting his Lordſhip to name the Prelate to whom he referred as 'contending ſtrenuouſly for the general Excellence of our preſent authoriſed Tranſlation of the Bible.'* 8vo. 1s. Johnſon. London, 1789.

Taking it for granted the prelate alluded to is Dr. Louth, the author takes much pains to ſhew that the Biſhop of Norwich has miſrepreſented the meaning of that able Hebraiſt. That while the latter means only to recommend the ſtyle of our vulgar tranſlation, the former would lead us to ſuppoſe the accuracy of it was admitted likewiſe. Without entering into the ſubject, we ſhall quote the Doctor's words, and leave our readers to form their own opinions:

'For theſe reaſons, whenever it ſhall be thought proper to ſet forth the holy ſcriptures for the public uſe of our church to better advantage than as they appear in the preſent Engliſh tranſlation, the expediency of which grows every day more evident, a reviſion or correction of that tranſlation may perhaps be more adviſeable than to attempt an entirely new one. For as to ſtyle and language it admits of but little improvement; but in reſpect of the ſenſe and accuracy of interpretation, the improvements of which it is capable are great and numberleſs.'—*Preliminary Diſſertation*, p. lxxii.

The author of this little pamphlet produces other authorities for the propriety of a meaſure which ſhould after all be engaged in with great caution.

ART. 32. *Parochialia; or, Inſtructions to the Clergy in the Diſcharge of their parochial Duty. By the Right Rev Thomas Wilſon, D. D. Biſhop of Sodor and Man.* 12mo. 2s. Cruttwell, Bath; Dilly, London. 1788.

This valuable little volume was, it ſeems, originally preſented in manuſcript to every clergyman of the reverend author's dioceſe. It is now printed ſeparately from the doctor's great works to render its uſe more general. We ſincerely join in wiſhing it may be as univerſally peruſed as its merit entitles it to, not ſcrupling to affirm there is ſcarcely a parochial duty omitted which can ever occur to to the regular clergy.

ART. 33. *Sunday-School Dialogue; being an Abridgement of a Work by M. P. entitled 'The firſt Principles of Religion and the Exiſtence of a Deity explained, in a Series of Dialogues adapted to the Capacities of the Infant Mind.'* 12mo. 3d. Marſhall. London, 1790.

This is another uſeful little performance for which the public is indebted to Mrs. Trimmer's induſtry; nor is it conducted with leſs addreſs for the claſs it is intended for than any other of her former publications.

ART. 34. *A Letter to the Farmers of Great-Britain on ſome Things of Importance; with an Addreſs to the Public. By the Author of the poor Child's Friend.* Small 8vo. 3d. Rivingtons. London, 1789.

Much wholeſome advice, both for the ſoul and the body, is contained in this petty performance. The peaſantry and laborious part of the community are principally addreſſed, and the vices to which they are moſt addicted reprobated in terms ſerious and emphatic. Sabbath-breaking, drunkenneſs, and ſwearing, as not only criminal in themſelves, but the conſtant concomitants of the moſt criminal habits, he earneſtly cautions and exhorts the lower orders of the people to avoid. And the principal aim of the performance is to eſtabliſh a conviction that the great intereſts of futurity are, in every ſtation and condition of human life, intimately connected with the faithful diſcharge of preſent duty.

ART. 35. *Salvation through the Grace of our Saviour diſplayed; the Doctrine of Grace illuſtrated; and Righteouſneſs in all Manner of Converſation recommended. In ſeveral Sermons. By Alexander Shanks.* 12mo. 2s. Laing, Edinburgh. 1789.

The principal aim of theſe ſermons is to vindicate the orthodox ſyſtem of divinity from the exceptions of thoſe who have adopted the hypotheſis of Arminus. The author wants not either ingenuity or eloquence. He often reaſons with accuracy, and always declaims with ſtrength and effect. His ſentiments are generally fair and pointed, and the whole compoſition diſcovers conſiderable ardour and ſimplicity. He is one of that deſcription of diſſenters from the religious eſtabliſhment of North-Britain among whom the celebrated M'Ewen had his education, This beautiful writer our author adopts as his model; but all imitations are ſervile. His writing has not the charm of the original. In genius, taſte, and delicacy, of expreſſion, though meriting praiſe, he is much inferior to his maſter.

ART. 36. *Two Sermons, by William Gilpin, M. A. Prebendary of Saliſbury, and Vicar of Boldre in New Foreſt, near Lymington.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Blamire. London, 1788.

Theſe two ſermons have no other affinity than that the object of both ſeems to be a defence of Chriſtianity againſt enthuſiaſm on the one hand, and ſcepticiſm on the other. Many obſervations are here thrown out which the enemies of our religion and eſtabliſhment would do well to conſider very ſeriouſly. The ſermons are judiciouſly written; and we know no readers who may not peruſe them with advantage.

ART.

ART. 37. *The State of the Nation with reſpect to Religion and Manners; a Sermon preached at Uxbridge Chapel, Middleſex, Oct. 25th, 1789, being the Anniverſary of his Majeſty's Acceſſion to the Throne. By the Rev. Walter Harper, Aſſiſtant Lecturer.* 4to. 1s. Evans. London, 1789.

In this diſcourſe there is much good-ſenſe and ſound piety. The preacher enumerates our national advantages, and preſſes the proper uſe of them with great fervour. This leads him to ſtate our delinquency in the important duties of piety and gratitude. The picture is ſufficiently awful and affecting, and is ſufficient to fill us with regret that it is ſo very like the original.

ART. 38. *Paſſages concerning the Lord's Prayer and its internal Senſe. Selected from the Writings of the Hon. Emanuel Swedenborg.* Small 8vo. 1s. Chalklen. London, 1789.

Theſe extracts breathe all the original and profound myſticiſm of the works from which they are taken. They inſtance, in the moſt ſtriking manner, the creative powers of human genius, at the ſame time that they exemplify its extravagancies when abandoned by ſound diſcretion, and directed to no object of general utility. To readers who can forgive occaſional obſcurities there are ſeveral obſervations in theſe paſſages that are well deſerving a peruſal.

ART. 39. *Four ſelect Evangelical Diſcourſes. By George Nicholſon.* 8vo. 1s. Forſter. London, 1788.

The language of theſe diſcourſes is quaint, and rendered pedantic by various ſcraps of poetry and Latin, introduced, for the moſt part, without uſe. And it would be difficult, with all the candour we profeſs, to aſſign any other motive for the publication than the vanity of the author.

ART. 40. *A Sermon preached in the Cathedral Church of St. Paul's, London, May 28th, 1789, at the yearly Meeting of the Children educated in the Charity Schools in and about the Cities of London and Weſtminſter. By the Right Reverend Father in God, Samuel, Lord Biſhop of St. Aſaph.* 4to. 1s. Rivingtons. London, 1789.

In this ſermon the neceſſity and advantages of a pious education are ſtated and defended on the principles of Chriſtianity and true patriotiſm. Like all the other compoſitions of this eminent prelate, the preſent performance is diſtinguiſhed by taſte and genius. The argument for the diſcipline and culture of religion in the early ſtage of life ſeems to have ſtruck the author in a new point of view; and its propriety derives from his eloquence additional force and illuſtration. It is among his laſt public ſervices in one of the firſt ſituations of our church, which he filled with great primitive reſpectability; and in which, had it pleaſed God to have prolonged his valuable life, he was well qualified to promote the beſt intereſts of the community, both by precept and example.

ART.

ART. 41. *A Letter to the Rev. Ethanan Wincheſter; in which his theological Tenets and Opinions are fairly and candidly examined and confuted, as inconcluſive and ſophiſtical. By Dr. Sinclair.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Walker. London, 1790.

The author combines in his own all the diſſimilar characters of author, wag, and ſaint. His creed is in the new-fangled inſpirations and viſionary ſyſtem of a Swedenberg; in whoſe defence, however, he is as dull and formal as any Tabernacle preacher can be. But of the ridicule attached to the extravagant opinions of others, his ideas are juſt and laughable. Whoever has heard Ethanan Wincheſter will readily underſtand the following paſſage: 'It appears to me that that bold fellow Charon, the ferryman of hell, was figurative or typical of a methodiſt parſon. He was an ill-grown, fat fellow, ſo are moſt of them; he had a big, thick head, ſo have the generality of them; and can it be otherwiſe, ſince lumber and traſh more than would fill my friend Mr. G——'s garret compoſe the contents of their pates. He had a buſhy grey wig, and beard of the ſame colour, which you well know add to the dignity and conſequence of a methodiſt parſon. He had bleared eyes, ſo have many of them; and their hearers, from frequently howling and bawling about they do not know what. His rags were repreſentative of their diſcourſes. Thus you ſee that the prophecy, or account of your old friend Charon is literally fulfilled.'

Our author, however, carries his merriment rather too far in the culpable familiarity he uſes in ſpeaking of the worthies whoſe memories are preſerved to us both in the books of the Old Teſtament and the New. Thus he talks of *profeſſor Nicodemus*, of *Aaron the parſon*; he reckons Sampſon a mere *caitiff*, Joſhua *proud*, and Eliſha *ill natured*. And we ſhould not have reliſhed his humour the worſe, had not his licentious levity betrayed him occaſionally into very groſs obſcenity.

For

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS

For APRIL, 1790.

THIS month has exhibited a ſtatement of the public revenue and expenditure, or what is commonly called

THE BUDGET.

We continue to enjoy the bleſſings of profound peace and flouriſhing commerce, the natural reſult of the political ſituation of our neighbours, and that general maſs of induſtry and enterpriſe which ſprings from our free conſtitution, increaſed capitals, and commercial knowledge and habits. Although different opinions are entertained concerning the relation which the public revenue bears to the public expenditure, it is certain that our exports as well as imports, for the laſt year, exceeded thoſe of any other year in the annals of Britain. Notwithſtanding this circumſtance, not one of our taxes is either removed or alleviated; nay, the miniſter is obliged to acknowledge that the public expenditure cannot be brought to a permanent balance with the public income without a conſiderable reduction of the national expence; and ſuch a balance, we are aſſured, will be eſtabliſhed next year. Let us then give credit to ſo pleaſing a promiſe; whether it be well or ill founded a little time, and this only, will fully and incontrovertibly decide. We ſay that time *only* will fully decide the matter in queſtion, becauſe diſputes concerning the real ſtate of the public expenditure and revenue are maintained in parliament on grounds not more plauſible on the one ſide than on the other; and if ſuch able calculators as Mr. Pitt, Mr. Dundaſs, Mr. Fox, Mr. Sheridan, and Sir Grey Cooper, cannot ſettle the matter beyond the power of controverſy, even with the advantage of the public accounts before them, it would be idle in any political ſpeculator, without that advantage, to pronounce a decided opinion on ſo complicated a ſubject.

It appears ſtrange, at firſt ſight, that ſuch a diverſity of opinions ſhould be entertained by ſuch able men on a point that ſeems capable of being determined with even mathematical preciſion. But it is to be conſidered that this diverſity is occaſioned, not ſolely by the complication of vaſt and various accounts, but partly by the aſſumption of different principles. Mr. Sheridan, in the average on which he founds his deductions, includes

includes the year 1786. Mr. Pitt, in his average, keeps this expenſive year out of ſight, and reaſons on other years more favourable to his purpoſe.

This diſpute between Mr. Pitt and Mr. Sheridan is near akin to that between the French miniſter, and ex-miniſter, Mr. Neckar and Mr. de Calonne. Mr. Neckar, anxious like Mr. Pitt to provide a ſinking fund, reaſoned on an average from which certain years, more than ordinarily expenſive, were excluded. Such and ſuch, ſays Mr. Neckar, would have been the ſtate of the French finances but for the *temporary* embarraſſment in which they were involved in conſequence of the part which France took in the American war. Mr. Neckar's ſucceſſor in the office of comptroller-general of the finances, diſcovered, that inſtead of the ſurplus revenue which he confidently talked of, there was in reality a very great deficiency. Mr. Neckar acknowledges this deficiency, but, by way of apology, ſhews how it happened. Mr. de Calonne replies, that reaſons why the deficiency could not but exiſt, ſerve only to prove the truth of its exiſtence; and the contingencies by which it was occaſioned, ought to have been taken into that average on which the pretended ſurplus of the public revenue over the public expenditure was founded.

As Mr. Neckar, in the formation of his average, ſtops when he comes to the extraordinary expences incurred by war, ſo Mr. Pitt carries his average no farther back than where he finds the nation to be in a ſtate of perfect tranquillity, and, as he himſelf affirms, of *unexampled* proſperity. Now, how far one or two years of *unexampled* proſperity is a fit average for calculating the balance between the ordinary public expenditure and the ordinary public income, it is not difficult to determine. This is not quibbling about words. In ſo grave a matter we would not give way to a levity and petulance which, in the character of critics, we would condemn on any ſerious occaſion: we ſpeak the words of truth and ſoberneſs. Have not adminiſtration, in order to prop the ſinking fund, been reduced to the neceſſity of borrowing a million ſterling; and, in order to defray the annual intereſt of this ſum, to impoſe new and vexatious taxes? Our joy at the flattering proſpect held out in the budget, though not wholly overcaſt, cannot but ſuffer a degree of abatement when we reflect that, on a general review of the income and expenditure of the years 1786, 87, 88, including in this expenditure the annual million for a ſinking fund, we find a deficiency of ſeveral millions ſterling; that from the ſum already redeemed we are to deduct loans, exchequer-bills, and anticipations of the public revenue to the amount of three millions and an half; and that the improvements in the collection of the taxes which

are

are now considered as a necessary article in the estimate which supports the sinking fund, were originally held out by the revenue committee as a provision for contingencies. The only provision that we have for unfavourable, for aught that has yet in fact taken place, is favourable contingencies. The efficacy of the annual million for a sinking fund depends upon the perpetuity of peace. If the *millennium*, as administration suppose, has actually commenced, if Satan shall indeed be bound for a thousand years, there is not a doubt but the sinking fund will melt away the national debt sooner or later; but if the old dragon should be suffered to make his usual rounds, he will quickly overturn all that the patrons of the sinking fund have been building for years. Although not one of the members of the House of Commons has deemed it proper so far to encounter vulgar opinion as to oppose the establishment of a sinking fund of some sort, there is nothing more certain, or even demonstrable, than that the scheme of making one object, the PUBLIC, both debtor and creditor, of giving away with one hand and taking with another, of transmitting to posterity depreciated money, instead of productive labour, is a mischievous absurdity; a truth on which we have touched, on different occasions, and particularly at considerable length, in our political speculation for June last, to which we refer our readers.

Indeed, a plain man, without entering into the calculations of finance and the nature and causes of the wealth of nations, naturally puts the question, If our revenue be in reality in so very flourishing a situation, where is the produce? Why impose so many odious, vexatious, and ruinous taxes? That the excise imposed on tobacco is such, needs not to be illustrated. It is therefore to be modified, like many others of the present minister's taxes, by a committee of parliament. And here it must be allowed that the injudicious manner in which administration impose, and the crown lawyers draw up acts for the imposition of taxes, is counterbalanced, in some degree, by the candour and readiness with which they adopt useful plans and hints from all men, especially from their political adversaries. Tell me, the minister seems to say on many occasions, tell me what you would have me to do; but let me be always prime minister of England. There is a great deal of caution and prudence in this mode of proceeding: but if it continues to grow into a system, if it is carried to the greatest possible length, and practised in all possible cases, it may be doubted how far it is consonant with the spirit of our constitution, as it tends to take away from the RESPONSIBILITY of ministers, and to protect them from blame and censure, be the effect of their conduct what it will, by the authority and sanction of the House of Commons. The business of

of that houſe, as we take it, is rather to ſay *negatively* what a miniſter ſhall *not* do, than *poſitively* what he ought to do, or ſhall do. Shall I purſue this or that meaſure? Shall I make war or peace, &c. &c.? Sir, you know beſt; you are beſt acquainted with the circumſtances of the caſe, you have weighed it in its origin, its collateral circumſtances, and probable conſequences. Whatever you do, you do it at your own riſk. If you act honeſtly and wiſely, you will be rewarded with approbation and applauſe; if diſhoneſtly or imprudently, puniſhed with diſapprobation and diſgrace.—It is not enough that a miniſter be honeſt, diligent, conſtant, and firm, and protect himſelf and his meaſures by the moſt conſummate arts of management. He ſhould poſſeſs an inventive and ſublime genius, that can penetrate farther into things than it would be, in all caſes, prudent, or perhaps poſſible, to explain to the nation. He ſhould be able not only to prove the purity of his intentions with regard to the means—but to poſſeſs ſuch a confidence in the wiſdom of his meaſures as might enable him to foreſee and foretell the effects of his conduct. Such a miniſter was the immortal CHATHAM; ſuch a miniſter is NOT his ſon. Lord NORTH, in the ſpirit of management and caution, obtained a vote of the Commons for carrying on war againſt the Anglo-Americans. This of courſe became the war of the Houſe; and the Houſe therefore perſevered in it longer than they would have otherwiſe done, if it had been undertaken and carried on ſolely by the authority of the miniſter.

The ſmall majority by which the motion for a repeal of the tobacco exciſe act was negatived, ſufficiently declares the ſenſe of the nation on that ſubject.

REFORM OF PARLIAMENTARY REPRESENTATION.

Mr. Flood, as we meant to have obſerved in our laſt ſpeculation, had we not been precluded by other matter, introduced and recommended his motion for a more equal repreſentation of the people in parliament with admirable ingenuity and eloquence. All that could be ſuggeſted by the faculty of reaſoning, in favour of his motion, was urged by Mr. Flood with modeſty, with brevity, and in that calm and diſpaſſionate, though manly and energetic manner, that alone becomes the ſenate of a cultivated nation—yet was his motion wiſely rejected.

At all times, but eſpecially in the preſent, it would be political madneſs to excite a ſpirit of popular diſcontent; to move more than the united wiſdom of the nation could either wield when in motion, or reduce to a ſtate of reſt. While any tolerable ſhare of virtue is to be found, while trade flouriſhes, and

of

property is ſecured, there will always remain a ſufficient degree of nervous ſenſibility in the political conſtitution for vibrating the ſenſations of the body to the head and heart: nor is there the ſmalleſt neceſſity for more ears to hear, or tongues to utter, the public voice. If commerce ſhall languiſh, property become inſecure, protection and favour uſurp the places of truth and juſtice, all things become venal and corrupt, the whole body faint, and the head diſordered; in vain ſhall we attempt to ſupply a defect in the radical ſpirit of our conſtitution, virtue, and honour, by multiplying parliamentary orators—

Non—ſi linguæ centum ſint, oraque centum
Ferrea vox.

In the preſent ſituation of affairs, there is no Britiſh miniſter but who MUST pay regard to the public opinion, which, in all public diſſenſions, caſts the balance, if not always with wiſdom, always with deciſion. The people, by taking part with miniſtry, are able to ſupport them if they are in the right, or overturn them if they are found to multiply the oppreſſions more than the bleſſings of the nation, by ſupporting oppoſition. The chain of arteries that runs throughout, and connects and beſtows vitality on the Britiſh conſtitution is this: as miniſters muſt pay regard to the voice of the members of parliament, and theſe to that of their electors; ſo the electors themſelves, on all great and momentous occaſions, catch the general tone, and dare not to reſiſt the unanimous ſentiments of their neighbours.

FOREIGN VIEWS.

The ſtrong CONFEDERACY that has been formed between Pruſſia, Sweden, Poland, Turkey, and, we may add, England and Holland, is a ſtriking proof of the united power of

THE RUSSIANS AND AUSTRIANS.

A general war is on the point of burſting out on the continent; if it be not prevented by a ſudden pacification. Nor is it altogether unreaſonable to ſuppoſe that a pacification may yet take place. It was not till after numerous and moſt formidable armies had been brought into the field, which produced many evolutions, that peace was made at Teſchen, which ſettled the diſpute concerning the ſucceſſion of Bavaria, between the late ſovereigns of Auſtria and Pruſſia.

DIFFICULTIES AND DISSENSIONS IN FRANCE.

It was nobly ſaid by the Count de Clermont 'the National Aſſembly is accuſtomed to ſtorms.' If the arduous work which

they have undertaken is not wholly ſuperior to the powers of human wiſdom, the genius of that auguſt body, notwithſtanding preſent appearances, will 'ride in the whirlwind, and direct the 'ſtorm.' Though ariſtocratical and clerical combinations and intrigues may trouble and impede their progreſs in legiſlation for a time, they will finally prevail, being ſupported by reaſon, and even numbers, on their ſide, and the invincible ſpirit of freedom.

IN THE BELGIC PROVINCES

the demon of ſuperſtition ſtill ſtretches his raven wings over the land, and by his deadly ſhade attempts, with various ſucceſs, to exclude the light of liberty. The Indians have a notion that, in eclipſes, there is a conteſt between a good and an evil ſpirit; but as light invariably prevails over darkneſs at laſt, they rightly conclude that the good ſpirit is the moſt powerful. In the Auſtrian Netherlands, at the preſent moment, the ſun of righteouſneſs is under an eclipſe; but the good ſpirit will prevail, and ſhed his benign influence on men who are under darkneſs and the ſhadow of death.

When we read in ancient authors of the druidical ſacrifices in Gaul of human creatures, we are ſtruck with ſurpriſe and horror. When we reflect on theſe, and compare them with the deſpotic and ſanguinary proceedings of the prieſts of GALLIA BELGICA at the preſent moment, we conclude that the ſpirit of ſuperſtition and prieſtcraft remains always the ſame, however it may change its object and mode of acting.

☞ *Communications for* THE ENGLISH REVIEW *are requeſted to be ſent to* Mr. MURRAY, No. 32, Fleet-ſtreet, London; *where Subſcribers for this Monthly Performance are reſpectfully deſired to give in their Names.*

THE

ENGLISH REVIEW,

For MAY 1790.

ART. I. *The Philoſophy of Natural Hiſtory. By William Smellie, Member of the Antiquarian and Royal Societies of Edinburgh.* 4to. 1l. 1s. boards. Edinburgh, printed: ſold by Cadell, London. 1790.

THE ſtudy of nature is the moſt delightful that can engage the attention of man. That beauty, that order, that ſymmetry, which run through the works of creation, ſooth the turbulence of paſſion, excite tender and placid emotions, and fill the feeling and contemplative mind with rapturous joy. Far different is the ſcene which human life preſents. Man, the tyrant of the univerſe, has violated the fair form of the world, and created confuſion, and anarchy, and vice. The introduction of property, the diviſion of ranks in ſociety, the amazing extenſion of arts and commerce, have deſtroyed the primæval manners, and contributed to the degradation of the human race. The ſtudy of life, however uſeful, is certainly diſguſting to an ingenuous mind, and has a manifeſt tendency to weaken the force of moral obligation. From this chequered picture we gladly return to a more lovely ſcene. Our diſpoſitions receive a tincture from our ſtudies and purſuits. The contemplation of nature attunes our ſouls to harmony. That univerſal ſyſtem of gradation, and that ſubordination of the parts to the whole, teach contentment with our ſituation, and reſignation to the Divine Will. We leave the habitation of groveling mortals, and, for a time, reſpire a purer air.

But the ſubject of natural hiſtory is locked up in foreign or dead languages, and obſcured with a farrago of barbarous names and indelicate illuſions. To explore theſe rich mines, and to extract and refine the coarſe ore, is to render an eſſential ſervice to mankind. The ſtudy is eaſy and attracting, and is equally accommodated to the youth of both ſexes. Several works of this kind have been compoſed; but they have been generally defective in method or elegance. Ray, in the end of laſt century, and Derham in the beginning of the preſent, publiſhed treatiſes of this popular nature; but the uncouth manner, the confuſed arrangement, and the unpoliſhed language, were equally forbidding, and their productions have fallen into oblivion. The Abbé Le Pluche was more ſucceſsful; his *Spectacle de la Nature* is even now read with conſiderable pleaſure. But the author is limited in his views, and extremely ſuperficial. The only good work of the kind, with which we are acquainted, is the *Contemplation de la Nature* of Bonnet; and it deſerves our higheſt commendation. It is at once clear, elegant, and profound. The author takes an ample range, and his views are extenſive, and ſometimes ſublime. His diction is ſmooth and perſpicuous, and through the whole he breathes an air of beneficence and piety.

We conſider the work now before us as a valuable preſent to the public. It furniſhes the moſt rational entertainment, and mingles, in a remarkable degree, the uſeful with the pleaſant. It contains information that is various, elegant, and important. The method of treating it is clear and natural. The language, though ſometimes perhaps diffuſe and nerveleſs, is, upon the whole, ſimple, correct, and perſpicuous. To novelty of facts, or originality of views, Mr. Smellie does not indeed pretend; but, in the ſelection of his materials, he diſplays judgment and taſte. Like his friend, the late ingenious Lord Kaims, he diſcovers a fondneſs for inveſtigating final cauſes; a diſpoſition which, though hardly conſiſtent with the cautious ſpirit of accurate philoſophy, gives a favourable turn to the mind, and is peculiarly pleaſing to youth. And in an age when a ſuperficial knowledge pervades every rank, we doubt not that this work will be read with avidity.

In the firſt chapter, Mr. Smellie conſiders the diſtinguiſhing characters of animals, plants, and minerals, and the analogies which ſubſiſt between them. The productions of nature aſcend by gradual and imperceptible ſteps. Thoſe claſſes which, at firſt ſight, appear to be ſo widely removed, are found, upon a cloſer examination, to be ſeparated by no preciſe and determinate boundary. Hence definitions are uſeleſs and futile. In every circumſtance plants, to a certain degree, reſemble animals. The ſtructure and irritability of parts, and the power of performing certain

certain motions, are in ſome meaſure common to both. The delicate ſhrink of the *ſenſitive plant* has long been the ſubject of wonder and ſurpriſe. The *moving plant*, a native of the Eaſt-Indies, is affected by the mere impulſe of the ſolar rays. During the night, or in cold and cloudy weather, it is ſtill and torpid; but when the ſun ſhines it is enlivened, and moves its leaves briſkly in all directions. The *Venus' fly-trap*, an American plant, is of a very ſingular kind. Its leaves are furniſhed with a double row of prickles, with which it ſeizes and tranſfixes the ſmall inſects that approach it.—The ſleep of plants is performed variouſly, and in a manner the beſt adapted to their particular ſtructure. The leaves of the *tamarind-tree* contract round the tender fruit, and protect it from the nocturnal cold. The leaves of the *chickweed*, the *ſwallow-wort*, the *orach*, &c. are diſpoſed in pairs, and during the night they riſe, join at the top, and conceal the flowers. The leaves of the *Indian mallow*, the *ayenia*, and the *tree-primroſe*, are placed alternately. Though horizontal, or even depending during the day, they riſe at the approach of night, and embrace the ſtem. In the ſame manner the *nightſhade*, and the *Egyptian vetch*, erect their leaves during the night. The young buds of the *white lupine* are protected by the pendulous ſtate of the leaves.—Plants have a ſingular power of accommodating themſelves to their ſituation, and of recovering their original poſition. In ſome inſtances they ſeem to be actuated by the principle of choice, and almoſt capable of reflection:

'When trees grow near a ditch, the roots which proceed in a direction that would neceſſarily bring them into the open air, inſtead of continuing this noxious progreſs, ſink below the level of the ditch, then ſhoot acroſs, and regain the ſoil on the oppoſite ſide. When the root is uncovered, without expoſing it to much heat, and a wet ſponge is placed near it, but in a different direction from that in which the root is proceeding, in a ſhort time the root turns towards the ſponge. In this manner the direction of the roots may be varied at pleaſure. All plants make the ſtrongeſt efforts by inclining, turning, and even twiſting, their ſtems and branches, to eſcape from darkneſs and ſhade, and to procure the influences of the ſun. Place a wet ſponge under the leaves of a tree, they ſoon bend downward, and endeavour to apply their inferior ſurfaces to the ſponge. If a veſſel of water be placed within ſix inches of a growing cucumber, in twenty-four hours the cucumber alters the direction of its branches, bends either to the right or left, and never ſtops till it comes in contact with the water. When a pole is placed at a conſiderable diſtance from an unſupported vine, the branches of which are proceeding in a contrary direction from that of the pole, in a ſhort time it alters its courſe, and ſtops not till it clings around the pole.'

Mr. Smellie proceeds to trace the analogy between plants and animals in the ſeveral points of *ſtructure* and *organs*, *growth* and *nouriſhment*, *diſſemination* and *decay*.

1. *Structure* and *organs*. An accurate and diſtinct account occurs of that ſingular being the *polypus*:

'His body conſiſts of a ſingle tube, with long *tentacula*, or arms, at one extremity, by which it ſeizes ſmall worms, and conveys them to its mouth. It has no proper head, heart, ſtomach, or inteſtines of any kind. This ſimplicity of ſtructure gives riſe to an equal ſimplicity in the economy and functions of the animal. The polypus, though it has not the diſtinction of ſex, is extremely prolific. When about to multiply, a ſmall protuberance or bud appears on the ſurface of its body. This bud gradually ſwells and extends. It includes not a young polypus, but is the real animal in miniature, united to the mother as a ſucker to the parent-tree. The food taken by the mother paſſes into the young by means of a communicating aperture. When the ſhooting polypus has acquired a certain growth, this aperture gradually cloſes, and the young drops off, to multiply its ſpecies in the ſame manner. As every part of a polypus is capable of ſending off ſhoots, it often happens that the young, before parting from the mother, begin to ſhoot; and the parent animal carries ſeveral generations on her own body. There is another ſingularity in the hiſtory of the polypus. When cut to pieces in every direction fancy can ſuggeſt, it not only continues to exiſt, but each ſection ſoon becomes an animal of the ſame kind. What is ſtill more ſurpriſing, when inverted as a man inverts the finger of a glove, the polypus ſeems to have ſuffered no material injury. M. Trembley, in the courſe of his experiments, diſcovered that different portions of one polypus could be ingrafted on another. He gave ſcope to his fancy, and, by repeatedly ſplitting the head and part of the body, formed hydras more complicated than ever ſtruck the imagination of the moſt romantic fabuliſts.'

Vegetables are, like animals, compoſed of a ſeries of veſſels. The bark conſiſts of the *cortex* or exterior covering, the *parenchyma*, a pulpy ſubſtance formed by a variety of *folliculi*, and the *liber* or rind, which, towards the end of autumn, coaleſces with the wood, and acquires the ſame conſiſtence. The pith is a congeries of air and ſap veſſels, interwoven like gauze. It continually diminiſhes, becauſe a part dries and incorporates with the general maſs. The wood conſiſts of a denſe compact *ligneous* matter, and a porous pulpy *parenchyma*. The ſame ſtructure extends through every part of a vegetable; and the roots, the branches, and the leaves, however unlike in appearance, are ſimilar in their texture. The aſcenſion of ſap is aſſiſted by capillary attraction, and the action of the air veſſels or *tracheæ*; but theſe cauſes are not alone adequate to the effect. The great ſource of motion is the principle of life inherent in vegetables, and which is excited and ſtimulated by the application of warmth.

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The analogy between the circulation of the blood in animals is not indeed complete; for the ſap riſes vigorouſly in the day, when the plant is cheriſhed by the enlivening rays of the ſun, and again deſcends during the night. The pith of vegetables reſembles the ſpinal marrow and brain, the great ſeat of life. The leaves are expiratory organs, and ſupply the place of lungs. The branches, like the arms and *tentacula* of animals, ſerve for ſupport and defence. Bones, as well as wood, conſiſt of concentric layers. The graſſes differ conſiderably from other plants in their ſtructure. Their tubular and knotted form gives them ſtrength to reſiſt the violence of the wind. They reſemble the polypus and tænia. Succulent vegetables bear an analogy to worms, caterpillars, and ſoft inſects.

2. *Growth* and *nouriſhment*. Animals grow by *developement*, vegetables by *accretion*. Water is the principal food of plants; which is abſorbed by the fibres of the root, elaborated and converted into ſap, and then conducted, by numberleſs veſſels, to nouriſh the various parts. Seeds and embryos grow in the ſame manner. A part of the grain is converted, by the proceſs of vegetation, into a pulpy ſaccharine ſubſtance, which nouriſhes the infant plant, and the ſeminal leaves, by attracting air and moiſture, aſſiſt the expanſion. The age of animals admits of great variety. Plants are annual, biennial, triennial, and perennial. Warmth and moderate moiſture are equally favourable to vegetation and animal life. Some plants are confined to particular climates. The *arctic bramble* is only found in Norway and Canada. Others, as the *chickweed*, are diffuſed over the earth. The elephant is the native of warm regions, the reindeer inhabits only cold countries; but man is diſperſed through all the varieties of climate. The ruſh is an amphibious plant, the miſletoe a paraſite.—Acceſs of air and exerciſe are neceſſary to the health and vigour of vegetables as well as of animals. Plants, in confined ſituations, become weak, dwarfiſh, and pallid.

3. *Diſſemination* and *decay*. The diſtinction of animals into *oviparous* and *viviparous* is not ſufficiently marked. Some poſſeſs the power of generating in both ways; nor is the preſence of eggs always neceſſary to production. One ſpecies of *polypus* multiplies its kind, by ſending of ſhoots; another, by ſplitting longitudinally; another by dividing into tranſverſe ſections. The *dart-millepes* diſcharges its young, by a ſpontaneous ſeparation. The animalcules which appear in animal and vegetable infuſions, multiply *ad infinitum*, by continual diviſions and ſubdiviſions. The *vine-fretter* has been diſcovered to be capable of producing, without the influence of the male; and Bonnet has conducted the experiment through a ſucceſſion of nine gene-

rations. In the ſummer, this wonderful inſect is oviparous; but in autumn it depoſits its eggs on the bark and branches of the trees. Facts of this kind teach us to draw our concluſions with caution.—Eggs reſemble the ſeeds of plants. Both are inveſted with a hard cruſt. The rudiment of the future plant is concealed under the cicatrice of the ſeed, reſembling the *punctum ſaliens*, or living part of the egg. From theſe points veſſels are ſent out, in both, to abſorb the nouriſhment. Trees and ſhrubs, which produce by means of buds, may be conſidered as reſembling viviparous animals. In bulbous plants the root is obſerved, towards the end of autumn, to contain the plant in miniature. The *eyes* of potatoes remain torpid during the winter, but burſt forth into life by the genial influence of vernal warmth. The *water lentil*, a ſmall plant which covers ſtagnating pools, multiplies by detaching thin films from its leaf. Plants, like animals, have their ſeaſons of production. In northern climates, which enjoy a ſhort ſummer, the multiplication is rapid.—Some animals are capable of engrafting. Beſide the polypus, the *actinia*, or *ſea-nettle*, has the ſame ſingular property. Plants too, like animals, are ſubject to diſeaſe and decay. By exceſs of heat they become languid and ſhrivelled. Deprived of light and air, they become ſickly and lurid. An unfriendly ſoil, and a bleak expoſure, check their vigour and their growth. Age or accident puts a period to their exiſtence, and the mouldered veſtiges ſupply matter for the production of new generations.

In Chap. II, Mr. Smellie conſiders the *organs* and *ſtructure of animals*. He gives a very neat and clear view of the conſtruction and economy of the human body; and is thus enabled to inſtitute a compariſon, and mark the differences which ſubſiſt between it and thoſe of other animals. The degree of intelligence that is to be found in the brute creation correſponds to the ſimilarity of their ſtructure to that of man. In quadrupeds the uniformity of plan which runs through them all is wonderful. The variations ariſe almoſt ſolely from the difference of the proportions between the ſeveral parts. Immediately under the ſkin of quadrupeds, there is a thin muſcular ſubſtance, called *panniculus carnoſus*, by the ſudden ſhrinking of which they are enabled to drive off inſects. The carnivorous tribes are furniſhed with the weapons of deſtruction, and inherit diſpoſitions that are unſocial and cruel. Their ſtomach is ſmall, and their inteſtines ſhort. Their food runs into putreſcency, and is eaſily digeſted; and the *fæces* would prove hurtful from their acrid quality, if not ſpeedily diſcharged. Herbivorous quadrupeds are in general furniſhed with four ſtomachs, and their inteſtines are long, capacious, and convoluted. Their food is of a leſs nouriſhing quality, of more difficult digeſtion, and more tedious

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in the converſion into chyle. After maſtication the food is thrown into the firſt ſtomach, and, after concocting for ſome time, it is brought up and chewed, and again ſent into the ſecond; whence it ſucceſſively paſſes into the third and fourth. The external form of the herbivorous animals correſponds to their gentle diſpoſitions and mode of life. The ſhortneſs of their legs, and the length of their neck and head, enable them to paſture. They have no cutting teeth in the upper jaw, and are totally deprived of tuſks. They have no claws; and hoofs or horns are their only inſtruments of defence. Comparative anatomy informs us that man was not deſtined to feed upon vegetable or animal ſubſtances alone. He can ſubſiſt upon *either*, but the proper mixture of *both* is moſt conducive to the vigour of the conſtitution. In man and the quadrupeds, the circulation of blood in the fœtus is not complete. Inſtead of flowing through the lungs, it paſſes directly, by the *foramen ovale*, from the right auricle to the left. After birth, when reſpiration commences, this aperture completely cloſes. But, in the amphibious animals, the perforation is always entire, which gives them the power of ſuſpending the action of the lungs without inconvenience. The ſeal is remarkably gentle, and can be inſtructed to imitate various human actions. His manners are ſocial and affectionate. The young can diſtinguiſh the mother in a numerous troop, and readily obey her call. The elephant has only one ſtomach, but this defect is ſupplied by the extreme length of the inteſtines. This noble animal has been diſtinguiſhed in all ages by his ſize, his ſtrength, his ſagacity, and his ſteady affection. His trunk ſerves him inſtead of hands. He can lift the ſmalleſt piece of money from the ground, untie the knots of ropes, and open gates by turning the keys or puſhing back the bolts.

Mr. Smellie next proceeds to conſider the *ſtructure of birds*. Their external figure is admirably adapted to their mode of life. The wings are articulated with the breaſt-bone, and are furniſhed with muſcles of remarkable ſtrength. The tail ſerves as a rudder to direct their airy courſe. To diminiſh the reſiſtance of their motion their heads are ſmall, and terminated by long ſharp beaks: 'They are likewiſe deprived of external ears, and of protube-'rant noſes. Their tails, inſtead of vertebræ, muſcles, and 'ſkin, conſiſt entirely of feathers. They have no pendulous 'ſcrotum, no bladder, no fleſh uterus. Neither have they an 'epiglottis, though many of them poſſeſs great powers of mo-'dulation, and ſome of them may be even taught to articulate 'words. To lighten their beaks, they are deprived of lips and 'teeth; and their abdomen or belly is proportionally ſmall and 'narrow. Their feathers are inſerted in ſuch a manner as to

'lie backward from the head, and thus throw off the rain that 'might incommode them, and at the ſame time enable them to 'wing their courſe againſt the wind.' Birds are continually paſſing through buſhes and thickets; and Nature, to protect them from receiving injury, has furniſhed the *membranum nictitans*, which can be drawn over the eye like a curtain, and while it ſhades them from external violence, it admits light ſufficient to direct their courſe. Their rump terminates in a large gland, ſecreting an oily ſubſtance, with which they occaſionally anoint their feathers, and thus prevent the water from inſinuating. Birds are divided into the granivorous and the carnivorous. In the former claſs the œſophagus or gullet terminates in a membranous ſac, called the *ingluvies* or craw, where the food is macerated and partly diſſolved. It then paſſes into the *ventriculus ſuccenturiatus*, and, after receiving a farther dilution, it deſcends into the gizzard or true ſtomach, which conſiſts of two very ſtrong muſcles, covered externally with a tendinous ſubſtance, and lined with a thick, firm membrane. The lungs are red ſpongy bodies, attached to the back-bone, covered with a pervious membrane, and communicating with large veſicles that are ſpread over the whole abdomen. Theſe veſicles render the birds ſpecifically lighter, and ſupply the place of a diaphragm. In the male the teſticles are proportionably large, and communicate with two ſeminal ducts that terminate in the penis. In the female the cluſter of yolks is analogous to the human ovaria. The yolk paſſes into a canal called the *infundibulum*, where it receives a gelatinous liquor that compoſes the white. The uterus is a large bag ſituated at the end of the infundibulum; and here the egg receives its laſt covering, and is puſhed out of the vagina at an aperture placed immediately over the anus. This claſs of birds has a ſtrong analogy to the herbiborous quadrupeds. Their internal ſtructure is ſimilar, and their diſpoſitions are equally ſocial and gentle. The birds of prey have the ſame number of ſtomachs, though ſmaller and weaker; and, like thoſe of the rapacious quadrupeds, their inteſtines are ſhorter, and they can endure hunger for a great length of time. They are quick-ſighted; and thoſe that feed upon carrion have an exquiſite ſcent. As in this claſs the care of the young is intruſted to the mother, the females are larger, ſtronger, and more beautiful, than the males. Their diſpoſitions are ſullen and cruel. They retire to ſequeſtered rocks, or ſpend their lives in the ſolitary gloom of a foreſt. The feet of waterfowls are generally furniſhed with webs, which enable them to ſwim. Some feed upon the inſects that are found in the mud, and frequent marſhes and the margins of lakes and rivers.

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They wade in ſearch of their prey, and, for this purpoſe, are furniſhed with tall naked legs and long necks and bills.

Structure and organs of fiſhes. Fiſhes are extremely various in their ſhape and ſize. The organ of ſmell is large; and that they poſſeſs the ſenſe of hearing has lately been completely demonſtrated. Their ſtomach is ſmall, and the guts ſhort. The ſwimming bladder is an oblong white membranous bag, contiguous to the backbone, and containing a quantity of air. They have the power of contracting or dilating it at pleaſure, and are thus enabled to riſe or deſcend in the water. In thoſe fiſhes that grovel near the bottom it is wanting. The heart is of a triangular figure, and has only one auricle, one ventricle, and one great artery, diſtributed entirely on the gills.

Mr. Smellie proceeds to conſider the *ſtructure of inſects.* Here nature ſports with variety, and the ſubject is uncommonly curious and difficult. Inſects have commonly ſix legs, but the number is often much greater. Their *antennæ*, or feelers, ſeem to aſſiſt them in groping, and examining the ſubſtances with which they meet. Their eyes are abſolutely immoveable; but this defect is ſupplied by their number. In a few inſects theſe are ſmooth; in others they are hemiſpherical, and compoſed of many thouſand diſtinct lenſes. It is not certain whether they poſſeſs the ſenſe of hearing, but it ſeems probable. The bodies of inſects conſiſt, in general, of a head, trunk, and abdomen. In ſome there are four or ſix *palpi* fixed to the mouth, which aſſiſt them in holding their food while eating. The moſt wonderful part of the hiſtory of inſects is, the metamorphoſes which the winged kind undergo. They iſſue from their eggs in the ſoft and moiſt ſtate of the worm or caterpillar. They are then transformed into the inanimate nymphs or chryſalids, and, after continuing ſome time torpid, they feel the influence of the returning heats of ſpring or ſummer, and burſt from their priſon in the form of beautiful flies. Mr. Smellie examines the inſects according to the arrangement of Linnæus, and ſelects the more remarkable ſpecies. 1. The *coleoptera.* This order includes the *ſcarabæi*, or beetle tribe. Theſe live for ſome time in the form of caterpillars or grubs, and feed upon roots or putrid matter. After transformation they change totally their habits, and ſome, that before feed voraciouſly upon dung and carrion, are nouriſhed with the pureſt nectareous juices, extracted from fruits and flowers. In ſome, the period of exaltation is of ſhort duration. The *ephemeron fly* lives three years a grub in the water. It exiſts only a day in the winged ſtate, depoſits myriads of eggs, and gives place to future generations. 2. *Hemiptera.* The whole of this order are furniſhed with a proboſcis or trunk for extracting their food. To it are referred the

the *cockroach*, the *bug*, the *cricket*, &c. The *fire fly*, a native of the tropical regions, emits a lively light during the night. 3. *Lepidoptera.* This order includes the butterflies and moths; and the individuals are diſtinguiſhed for their elegance and beauty. 4. The *neuroptera.* The wings of this order reſemble beautiful network. Their tail has no ſting; but the male is frequently furniſhed with pincers. In the *dragon-fly* the organs of the male are ſituated in the breaſt, thoſe of the female in the extremity, and, during coition, they have the appearance of a double animal. The *ſpring-fly* frequents ſtreams. Its caterpillar is in great requeſt among the fiſhermen, and known by the name of *ſtone* or *cod bait*. 5. *Hymenoptera.* 'In 'general the inſects belonging to this order have four mem-'branaceous and naked wings. In ſome of the genera, however, 'the neuters, and in others the males, or even the females, 'have no wings. Their tails, except in the male ſex, are 'armed with a ſting.' To this order are referred the *ant*, the *bee*, the *waſp*, &c. 6. *Diptera.* This order conſiſts of two-winged inſects. The caterpillars of the *gad-fly* lie concealed in the ſkins of cattle, where they are nouriſhed during the whole winter. This order includes alſo the *common fly*, the *gnat*, and the *horſe-fly*. 7. *Aptera.* This order is compoſed of thoſe inſects that are not furniſhed with wings. It includes the *louſe*, the *flea*, the *ſpider*, the *ſcorpion*, &c. The laſt order is that of the *vermes*, or *worms*. The *hairworm* is common in our freſh waters, and, in this country, is perfectly harmleſs; but in Africa and both the Indies it is extremely noxious. It inſinuates itſelf into the naked feet or limbs of children and unwary perſons, and produces a dangerous inflammation. The *earth-worm* is hermaphrodite. It ſeems to feed ſolely upon fine earth. The *cuttle fiſh* is, in many reſpects, a ſingular animal. The *Meduſa* has the appearance of a lifeleſs maſs of jelly floating on the ſurface of the ocean; but, though the ſport of the waves, it is ſtill a gregarious animal.

Chap. III. treats of *reſpiration*. Upon this ſubject Mr. Smellie gives a view of the doctrines contained in Dr. Crawford's ingenious treatiſe on animal heat. It is found that air, which has aſſiſted in reſpiration, has its capacity for heat diminiſhed. Hence the principal ſource of vital warmth. The blood abſorbs the oxygenous part of the air; but whether it alſo evolves *carbone* is not yet decided. There is a remarkable circumſtance in the ſtructure of birds. The lungs communicate with air cells that are diſperſed over the whole body. The uſe of this arrangement is not yet well aſcertained. Some have imagined that the purpoſe of it was to expand the volume, and thus facilitate the aſcent of the bird. Mr. John Hunter ſuppoſes, with

with ſome probability, that the chief uſe is to avoid the inconvenience ariſing from the rapid flight, by furniſhing air when the action of the lungs is incommoded by the reſiſtance of the medium. Reſpiration ſeems to be, in a certain degree, neceſſary alſo to ſome fiſhes. Others have the power of extracting air from the element which they inhabit; either by decompoſing the water, or by ſeparating the gas which it contains. The organs of reſpiration in inſects are generally *ſtigmata*, or ſmall holes, ranged along the ſides in regular and beautifully dotted lines. If theſe be covered with any unctuous ſubſtance, the animal ſoon periſhes. Some inſects are furniſhed with *trachea*, which protrude from different parts of the body, and ſometimes have the appearance of tails. There is a ſpecies of aquatic worms, of a greeniſh brown colour, the bodies of which conſiſt of eleven rings, the laſt being open, and ſerving as a conductor of air. From this proceed a number of hairs, which are real feathers in miniature, and exclude water or mud, that might obſtruct reſpiration. Though air be, upon the whole, neceſſary to the ſupport of animals, yet they can continue for a great length of time in a ſtate of inaction, and without appearing to breathe. The facts with regard to the toad are very extraordinary. Three toads were lately buried in a box of earth, and, three months after, two of them were found ſtill alive:

'At the approach of winter, the toad retires to the hollow root of a tree, to the cleft of a rock, and ſometimes to the bottom of a ditch or pond, where it remains for months in a ſtate of ſeeming inſenſibility. In this laſt ſituation it can have very little communication with the air. But ſtill the principle of life is continued, and the animal revives in the ſpring. What is more wonderful, toads have been found, in an hundred places of the globe, incloſed in the heart of ſolid rocks, and in the bodies of trees, where they have been ſuppoſed to exiſt for centuries, without any apparent acceſs either to nouriſhment or to air; and yet they were alive and vigorous. In the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences for the year 1719 we have an account of a toad found alive and healthy in the heart of an old elm. Another, in the year 1731, was diſcovered near Nantz, in the heart of an old oak, without any viſible entrance to its habitation. From the ſize of the tree it was concluded that the animal muſt have been confined in that ſituation at leaſt eighty or an hundred years. In many examples of toads found in ſolid rocks exact impreſſions of the animals bodies, correſponding to their reſpective ſizes, were uniformly left in the ſtones or trees from which they were diſlodged; and to this day it is ſaid that there is a marble chimney-piece at Chatſworth with a print of a toad in it, and a traditionary account of the place and manner in which it was diſcovered.'

Chap.

Chap. IV. relates to *motion*. Motion, though the moſt familiar to our ſenſes, is obſcure and difficult, when conſidered in the abſtract. Mr. Smellie very properly waves the metaphyſical diſcuſſion of the ſubject. Motion may be divided into two kinds: that in which it originates in the body moved, and that in which it is derived from external action. The former includes the motions of animals, the latter thoſe of inanimate matter. The energy which we exert has its ſource in the brain and its ramifications, compoſing the nervous ſyſtem; and we are ſtimulated into action by the ſenſations made by the impreſſions of the objects around. But there are other motions, which are termed *vital* or *involuntary*, ſuch as the action of the heart, the periſtaltic motion of the bowels, &c.; in all which we are not conſcious of the operation of our will. The motions of animals vary with their weight, their ſtructure, their diſpoſitions, and their mode of life. Timid animals betray a reſtleſſneſs, and a continual flutter of action. Mr. Smellie ſelects ſeveral curious inſtances of animals which we would ſuppoſe from their ſtructure remain conſtantly at reſt, but which really perform a ſlow and painful motion. The muſcle tranſports itſelf by means of its tongue. It forms numberleſs viſcous threads, with which it can at pleaſure attach itſelf to the rocks, and reſiſt the agitation of its element. The razor-fiſh deſcends in the ſand, by the projection and incurvation of its leg. The oyſter retreats by ſuddenly and forcibly ejecting water. The motion of a ſpecies of Meduſa, or ſea-nettle, is as ſlow as the hour-hand of a clock:

'The *ſea-urchin*, or *ſea-hedgehog*, is round, oval, or ſhaped like a bias bowl. The ſurface of the ſhell is divided into beautiful triangular apartments, and covered with numberleſs prickles. Theſe triangles are ſeparated by regular belts, and perforated by a great number of holes. Each hole gives lodgment to a fleſhy horn, ſimilar to thoſe of the ſnail, and ſuſceptible of the ſame movements. Like the ſnail, the ſea-urchin uſes its horns when in motion; but their principal uſe is to fix the animal to rocks, ſtones, or the bottom of the ocean. By means of the horns and prickles, which proceed from almoſt every point of the ſhell, the ſea-urchin is enabled to walk either on its back or on its belly. The limbs it moſt generally employs are thoſe which ſurround the mouth. But, when it chooſes, it can move forward by turning on itſelf, like the wheel of a coach.'

[*To be continued.*]

ART.

ART. II. *On the Principle of Vitality in Man, as deſcribed in the Holy Scriptures, and the Difference between true and apparent Death; a Sermon preached in the Pariſh Church of St. Andrew, Holborn, on Sunday, March* 22, 1789, *for the Benefit of the Humane Society. By Samuel, Lord Biſhop of St. David's.* 4to. 1s. Rivingtons. London, 1789.

IT is impoſſible to contemplate without pleaſure this great champion of the church againſt the inroads of Socinianiſm engaged in the benevolent office of preaching on the above occaſion. But neither the obligations we owe to his induſtry and learning, nor the high ſtation he ſo deſervedly fills, ſhould prevent our diſcharging thoſe duties the public has a right to expect of us. If therefore it ſhould appear to us that this able and eloquent divine reaſons better in polemics than on ſubjects of phyſiology, we ſhall not ſcruple to hazard our credit in ſo bold a conteſt.

After admitting that, on ſubjects of philoſophy not connected with religion, it is poſſible that an inſpired writer may have entertained erroneous opinions, or have accommodated himſelf to popular language, his lordſhip endeavours to ſhew that the compound nature of man, and the immateriality of the ſoul, are among thoſe ſubjects of poſitive revelation which a Chriſtian cannot but believe. This is a point we ſhall not take upon us to diſpute; though we cannot help doubting whether any of the terms by which the ſoul is deſcribed in holy writ neceſſarily imply its *immateriality*, how much ſoever they may teach us that its exiſtence is unconnected with the body. But the inquiry we would wiſh to make is, whether from ſcripture or from reaſon we learn any juſt conceptions of the *principle of vitality*; or, if we do, whether they will enable us to diſtinguiſh between true and apparent death.

The following is his lordſhip's account of the compound nature of man:

'But now let the divine be careful what concluſion he draw from this plain doctrine, and what notions he engraft upon it. Although we *muſt* believe, if we believe our Bible, that the union of ſoul and body is the firſt principle of animation in the human ſubject, it is by no means a neceſſary conſequence that the life of man is in no degree, and in no part, mechanical. Since man is declared to be a compound, the natural preſumption ſeems to be, that the life of this compounded being is itſelf a compound. And this experience and obſervation prove to be indeed the caſe. Man's life is compounded of the life of the intellect and the animal life. The life of the intellect is ſimply intelligence, or the energy of the intelligent principle. The animal life is itſelf a compound, conſiſting of the vegetable

vegetable life combined with the principle of perception. Human life therefore is an aggregate of at least three ingredients; intelligence, perception, and vegetation. The lowest and the last of these, the vegetable life, is wholly in the body, and is mere mechanism; not a mechanism which any human ingenuity may imitate, or even to any good degree explore; but the exquisite mechanism of a Divine Artificer. Still it is mechanism; consisting in a symmetry and sympathy of parts, and a correspondence of motions conducive, by mechanical laws established by the Creator's wisdom, to the growth, nourishment, and conservation of the whole. The wheels of this wonderful machine are set a-going, as the scriptures teach us, by the presence of the immaterial soul; which is therefore not only the seat of intelligence, but the source and centre of the man's entire animation. But it is in this circumstance only, namely, that the immaterial mover is itself attached to the machine, that the vegetable life of the body, considered as a distinct thing, as in itself it is, from the two principles of intelligence and perception, differs in kind (for in respect of excellence and nicety of workmanship all comparison were impious; but in kind the vegetable life of the human body differs in this circumstance only) from mere clockwork.'

Nothing can be more painful to us than not clearly to comprehend the arguments of a learned and ingenious writer. When we read that 'the life of the *intellect* is simply intelligence, and 'that the *animal* life is a compound of the vegetable life com-'bined with the principle of perception,' we are led to suppose that these last two are sufficient for the support of life divested of intelligence; and by the term mechanism, which is afterwards made use of, we are inclined to believe that this is his lordship's meaning. But it is afterwards added, 'The 'wheels of this wonderful machine are set a-going, as the scrip-'tures teach us, by the presence of the immaterial soul.' If by this be meant that the body, being once set in motion by the soul, continues that motion without the aid of the latter, we can admit the propriety of the term used. But if the presence of the soul be *always* necessary for the continuance of that motion, then either the body is not a machine, or the soul is a part of it. If it were necessary to illustrate this, we need only use his lordship's language, and observe that a clock, when set a-going by a man, continues, without *his* aid, its action afterwards for a time, according to the laws on which it is constructed, unless any of its parts are deranged. We are ready to admit the inference, that this mechanism is described as such as no human ingenuity can imitate, but we mean to urge that it does not at all illustrate it—'Still it is mechanism; consisting 'in a symmetry and sympathy of parts, and a correspondence of 'motions conducive, by mechanical laws established by the 'Creator's wisdom, to the growth, nourishment, and conser-

vation,

'vation, of the whole.' If this means that the arrangement of the different parts are beſt calculated for the above purpoſes, no man in his ſenſes will doubt it. If it means, as we ſuſpect, that without the aſſiſtance of the ſoul, all theſe purpoſes are brought about in other animals, and in vegetables; then either the ſoul is not neceſſary to ſet in motion the wheels of this machine, or animals and plants have a ſoul as well as man.

Setting aſide then the word machine, which, from its etymology and common acceptation, is ill applied to what no art can imitate, and what is no way the ſubject of mechanical principles, let us ſubſtitute the word organ, which, being a primitive word, is leſs liable to miſconception. Let us then aſk, whether any of the actions of this organ for the purpoſe of preſerving and ſupporting itſelf, are ſo different from the organiſation of other animals as to require a different mover; or if, as we are ready to admit becauſe ſcripture language implies it, the intelligent or immortal principle is different in man from thoſe organiſed materials; whether it neceſſarily follows that this principle ſhould be immaterial, when, by the above conceſſion, we ſee how far *common* matter is ſuſceptible of organiſation. And, laſtly, we leave it to his lordſhip's candour to determine whether the expreſſions he has ſelected from ſcripture, as deſcriptive of the ſoul, neceſſarily imply immateriality, how plainly ſoever they may deſcribe an exiſtence diſtinct from the body.

Having made thus free with the production of this learned prelate, it is but juſt, though hardly neceſſary, to obſerve that the reſt of the ſermon is admirably ſuited to the occaſion, and replete with ſound reaſoning and judicious obſervations.

ART. III. *The Firſt Principles of Chemiſtry. By William Nicholſon.* 8vo. 8s. London, 1789.

PERSPICUITY is the ſole merit of an elementary treatiſe; and the great object is to preſerve a clear, connected arrangement. The facts ought to ariſe naturally out of each other, and the mind ought to paſs ſmoothly along a chain of continued ſucceſſion. The phenomena muſt be gradually developed; ſimple and independent ſubjects muſt be firſt ſurveyed; and the effects of their various combinations will afterwards be perceived with facility. No branch of phyſics is perhaps more difficult to reduce to ſyſtem than the ſcience of chemiſtry; for the facts exiſt ſeldom independent, but are involved with collateral circumſtances. The preſent is the critical era of the ſcience. Its form has long been expoſed to fluctuation and change; and laboured hypotheſes have often periſhed in the inſtant

inſtant of their birth. A beam of light now burſts from all ſides; opinions, the offspring of an extravagant imagination, are conſigned to oblivion; and elegance and ſtability are given to the fabric. But to collect facts is the labour of the dull compiler; to introduce order and ſymmetry is the work of genius and diſcernment.

We are led into theſe reflections by the peruſal of the treatiſe before us. Our expectations are indeed diſappointed. The production is below mediocrity. To originality of matter, to clearneſs of method, to beauty of order, it has no pretenſions. The language is ſlovenly and inaccurate, and the arrangement is uncommonly confuſed. The author plumes himſelf in being able to compriſe the whole ſyſtem of chemiſtry in a ſingle volume. But ſmall is the merit of ſo paltry an abridgment.

The work is divided into two books: the firſt conſiders *general* chemiſtry, the ſecond *particular* chemiſtry. The author's definition of chemiſtry conveys no idea whatever: 'As a 'ſcience, its object,' ſays he, 'is to eſtimate and account the 'changes produced in bodies by motions of their parts, which 'are too minute to affect the ſenſes individually.' It is ſeldom that we meet with a ſentence ſo obſcure. Does he mean that the *parts* of bodies are too minute to affect the ſenſes; or that their *motions* are too minute to affect the ſenſes? To what does the word *individually* refer? Is it meant that one *ſenſe* alone receives the impreſſion; or that one *part*, or one *motion*, produces the ſenſation. If the ſentence has any meaning at all, it admits of four different applications. Beſides, the word *eſtimate*, in the preſent caſe, conveys no idea.—The author proceeds, in a curſory manner, to mention analyſis, ſyntheſis, elective attractions, &c. At once we are hurried into the midſt of the ſcience; and the effects of heat are ſtated before the term is explained. 'Heat expands ſolids, then renders them fluid, and afterwards 'converts them into vapour; and theſe changes ſucceed each 'other according as the intenſity of the heat is rendered greater.' This is, no doubt, very laconic; but unfortunately the laſt clauſe of the ſentence is nonſenſe.—In the ſecond chapter, the author begins more deliberately. He makes the common remark, that the word *heat* is employed either to denote the ſenſation itſelf, or the cauſe of that ſenſation. The effect is ſuppoſed by ſome to be produced by the internal vibration of the particles of bodies; by others it is imagined that the agent is a certain ſubtle fluid which is diffuſed through the univerſe. Some bodies are more eaſily heated than others in the ſame ſituation, and are therefore termed better *conductors of heat*. Whatever be the cauſe of heat, its general effect is to enlarge the dimenſions of bodies; and

and this expanſion is found to be nearly proportional to the additions of heat that are made. It has a tendency to an equal diffuſion; but it does not follow that all bodies of the ſame temperature contain it in equal quantity; for ſome are more ſuſceptible of its effects than others. Hence the diſtinction into *abſolute* and *relative* heat. The denſities of heat in different bodies in a ſimilar expoſure, are termed their *capacities for heat*. The capacity may be eſtimated from the change of temperature obſerved in mechanical mixture. Some philoſophers have aſcertained it by the quantities of ice, which different bodies, at the ſame temperature, were able to melt. Water has a greater capacity for heat than ice, and ſteam a ſtill greater than water. Hence ariſe the effects of evaporation and frigorific mixtures.

In Chap. III. Mr. Nicholſon treats particularly of the thermometer, and gives directions for the conſtruction and examination of it, and concludes with the rules for converting the degrees of Farenheit's into thoſe of Reaumur and Celſius. He next explains, in a curſory manner, the various operations of chemiſtry; calcination, fuſion, cementation, digeſtion, diſtillation, &c. and gives a ſhort deſcription of the more common apparatus. Our author then conſiders the mode of operating upon elaſtic fluids, deſcribes the eudiometer, and Dr. Nooth's elegant apparatus for impregnating water, and ſtates the improvements which have been made in collecting the aerial products in diſtillation.

The next chapter is allotted to the conſideration of weights and balances; a ſubject of great importance in nice chemical experiments. The delicacy of a balance is indicated by the ſlowneſs of the vibrations of the beam. The accuracy which has been introduced is quite aſtoniſhing. Mr. Bolton had a balance, which, when loaded with a pound, would turn with the tenth of a grain. One made for Dr. George Fordyce is affected by the $\frac{1}{384,000}$ of the weight; and the balance lately made by Mr. Ramſden for the Royal Society can aſcertain a weight to the *ſeven millionth part!* The firſt part of the work concludes with ſome remarks upon the inertia of matter, gravity, elective attraction, ſolution, cryſtalliſation, &c. The author ſeems fond of the ſilly notion of the polarity of particles.

Mr. Nicholſon proceeds, in the ſecond book, to conſider particular chemiſtry. He ſpeaks of light as if the doctrine were founded entirely upon conjecture. 'It is, generally 'taken for granted,' ſays he, 'that light is a ſubſtance, or 'an emanation of particles of prodigious minuteneſs, which are 'projected in right lines, with extreme velocity, from lumi-'nous bodies; and that they are repelled from all bodies at

'certain distances, and at less distances attracted, so as to pro-
'duce all the effects of reflection, refraction, and inflection, in
'the rays they compose.' What a strange inconsistent medley of words and ideas! He then slightly mentions the notion affixed by the chemists to the word phlogiston, and Mr. Kirwan's supposition that it is the same with hydrogenous gas. He next considers combustion, the absorption of oxygen gas, the production of this gas, the nitrous test, the hydrogenous gas, the composition of water, and the effects of the eolipile. After this rapid view of the aerial fluids, he descends to treat of the primitive earths. He considers the alkalis, relates the process for the manufacture of glass and soap, and mentions the general properties of the mineral, vegetable, and animal acids. Mr. Scheele described a process for extracting fossil alkali from sea salt. Mr. Turner triturates litharge with water and half its weight of common salt, till it assumes a white colour, and then allows the mixture to stand for some hours. The alkali is disengaged, and the marine acid unites to the calx of lead, and forms a yellowish green pigment, the sale of which is the principal object of the manufacturer. He next surveys the metals; mentions the division into perfect and imperfect, their calcination, crystallisation, solution, &c. and the opposite theories which have been formed on these subjects.

Mr. Nicholson now returns to examine more minutely what he had before slightly touched. He details the properties of vitriolic acid and sulphur, and their various changes and combinations. This acid is generally obtained by burning a mixture of eight parts of sulphur with one of nitre, in a large vessel lined with lead, and containing a small portion of water to absorb the fumes.—He next considers a very interesting subject, that of the nitrous acid; the formation of nitre beds, the extraction and purification of the salt, its deflagration and detonation, the composition of gunpowder, the *pulvis fulminans*, &c. the distillation of the acid, its formation, its effect upon animal substances and the essential oils; and slightly explains the opposite theories which have been offered. The marine acid occupies the next chapter. The sea contains, he says, between the tropics, from an eighth to an eleventh of its weight of salt. This is a mistake; for in no part of the world does the quantity exceed one twentieth. He relates the various methods of extracting the salt, and of crystallising it. The distillation of the acid, and the various compounds that it forms, are next considered. The oxygenated marine acid is of a singular nature; and its property of instantly destroying colour, has been directed with advantage to the bleaching of wax and linen. The power of *aqua regia* to dissolve gold is probably derived from the extemporaneous pro-

duction of oxygenated marine acid. Our attention is next turned to the carbonic gas, and thoſe ſubſtances and proceſſes which contribute to its formation, the calcareous matters, fermentation, and the combuſtion of charcoal. Its acidulating quality, and its combination with earths and alkalis, are mentioned. The acid of borax comes next to be conſidered; its production, its purification, its analyſis, its properties. The acid of amber has lately been examined, but its properties are not remarkable.

Mr. Nicholſon next treats of the phoſphoric acid, a ſubject on which ſo much light has lately been thrown. It abounds in animal ſubſtances, it occurs in the cruciform plants, and it is even found in the mineral kingdom. It is ſometimes combined with the ores of lead; and to iron it communicates the *cold-ſhort* quality; an unfortunate circumſtance for the manufacturers of this country. Both phoſphorus and its acid are now obtained with eaſe from bone aſhes. The acid is always formed by the union of oxygen with the phoſphorus, and may be procured in greater purity by the inflammation of the phoſphorus, by the ſpontaneous decompoſition ariſing from expoſure, or by the action of nitrous acid. Phoſphorus diſſolves in oils and ardent ſpirits, and communicates to them a luminous appearance. The ſolution in ſome of the eſſential oils has the property of ſpontaneous inflammation, when expoſed to the air. A ſtick of phoſphorus, plunged into the ſolutions of gold, ſilver, copper, and other metals, is gradually covered with a brilliant metallic ſheath. The phoſphoric acid combines with all the alkalis. Other acids have lately been examined, the theory of which is ſcarcely yet aſcertained. The acids of arſenic, molybdena, and turgoten, obtained from the ores.

Mr. Nicholſon then proceeds to the conſideration of the metals. The malleability and ductility of gold is quite aſtoniſhing. It is unalterable in the ſtrongeſt heat of our furnaces. It is, however, volatiliſed in the focus of powerful burning-glaſſes, and partially calcined. The electric exploſion converts it into a purple calx. Gold is ſoluble alone in *aqua regia* and oxygenated muriatic acid. By a careful evaporation the ſolution yields fine cryſtals of a topaz colour. It is precipitated by the earths and alkalis, and even by the addition of martial vitriol, and forms a yelloviſh or purpliſh powder. The precipitate made by volatile alkali or ſal ammoniac is termed *aurum fulminans*, becauſe, when gently heated, it explodes with aſtoniſhing violence. The volatile alkali, which unites to the calx, is ſuddenly decompoſed; the oxygen combines with the hydrogenous gas and forms water, while the azotic gas is inſtantly extricated. Hence the vitriolic acid, oils, æther, &c. which detach the volatile alkali, deſtroy the fulminating quality. If gold be

precipitated from *aqua regia* by means of tin, we obtain the *purple powder of Caſſius*, which is uſed as an enamel. Gold is not acted upon by nitre or the alkalis. It diſſolves, however, in the *liver of ſulphur*. It combines moſt readily with mercury. Hence the proceſs of water-gilding.—Silver comes next to be conſidered. It is fixed in the heat of common furnaces; but, expoſed in the focus of a powerful lens, it fumes and vitrifies. It is tarniſhed by the influence of the air; and the ſcales which are formed, during a courſe of years, upon ſilver images, are found to be a compound of that metal with ſulphur. Silver diſſolves in all the mineral acids. The ſolution in nitrous acid yields thin cryſtals, which are called *lunar nitre*; and theſe, when fuſed, form *lunar cauſtic*. The affuſion of marine acid produces *luna cornea*, which is difficultly ſoluble, and is thrown down. Heated with fixed alkali, it yields the pureſt ſilver. A curious diſcovery has lately been made by the ingenious M. Berthollet. He diſſolves pure ſilver in pale nitrous acid, and precipitates it from the ſolution by the addition of lime-water. He dries the calx by expoſing it to the air for three days. He next ſtirs it in a ſolution of cauſtic volatile alkali till it becomes a black powder; he then decants the fluid, and leaves it to dry. This is *fulminating ſilver*. The experiment requires to be conducted with the utmoſt caution. The ſlighteſt agitation occaſions an inſtantaneous and dreadful exploſion. The theory is the ſame with that of fulminating gold. Mercury ſeparates ſilver from its ſolutions extremely ſlowly. The precipitate aſſumes fanciful forms, and ſometimes reſembles the ramifications of a tree; and hence is termed by the alchemiſts *arbor Dianæ*.—The new metal, platina, is next conſidered; it is the denſeſt of all the metals. It has, in common with iron, the ſingular property of welding. It is precipitated from the ſolution in *aqua regia* by ſal ammoniac, which diſtinguiſhes it from the other metals. It is not affected by the Pruſſian alkali; and this circumſtance is the foundation of the method of ſeparating it from iron, with which it is commonly combined. Platina forms with copper a compound that admits of a fine poliſh, and is not ſubject to tarniſh; and hence it has been uſed for the mirrors of reflecting teleſcopes. Mr. Nicholſon next mentions the properties of mercury, its various compounds and preparations. Lead is the next in order. It is precipitated from its ſolutions by the liver of ſulphur. If lead be heated with charcoal and phoſphoric acid, the acid is converted into phoſphorus, and combines with the metal. The compound, in its appearance, reſembles lead. By the aſſiſtance of heat, lead decompoſes ſal ammoniac, and diſengages the volatile alkali. Litharge, fuſed with common ſalt, unites to the marine acid, and forms a yellow pigment. A mixture of eight

parts

parts of biſmuth, five of lead, and three of tin, will melt in a heat hardly ſufficient to cauſe water to boil. Copper decompoſes ſal ammoniac by diſtillation. It unites with ſulphur, and forms the *æs veneris*, which is uſed by dyers and callico printers. Copper unites alſo with phoſphorus. It has a ſtrong attraction for tin; and hence is founded the proceſs for tinning copper veſſels. Hence alſo the compoſition of bronze and of reflecting ſpeculums. Mr. Edwards has lately made an improvement on this ſubject. We ſhall tranſcribe the account.

'He firſt melts thirty-two parts of copper as fluid as poſſible, with one part of braſs and one of ſilver, together with the black flux; at the ſame time that fifteen parts of tin are melted in a ſeparate crucible by itſelf. Theſe being taken from the fire, he pours the tin to the copper, immediately ſtirs the whole together with a wooden ſpatula, and pours the whole out haſtily into a large quantity of cold water, which cools and granulates the compoſition. If the tin were fuſed together with the copper, or if they were to remain for any length of time in the extreme heat which is neceſſary to fuſe this metal, a part of the tin would be calcined, and the metal would abound more or leſs with ſmall microſcopic pores. If one of the pieces of the cold metal be broken, it will appear of a moſt beautiful bright colour, reſembling quickſilver. Mr. Edwards affirms that different kinds of copper require different doſes of tin to produce the moſt perfect whiteneſs. If the doſe of tin be too ſmall, which is the fault moſt eaſily remedied, the compoſition will be yellow; if it be too great, the compoſition will be of a grey blue colour, and dull appearance. He therefore finds, by trial, the quantity of tin neceſſary to be added in the ſecond fuſion to render the metal the moſt perfect. A much leſs heat is then required to melt the compound. In the ſecond melting he adds one part of arſenic, and immediately ſtirs the mixture, which he pours into the mould as ſoon as the fumes of the arſenic have ceaſed to ariſe. He caſts the ſpeculum in ſand, with the face downwards; takes it out while red-hot, and places it in hot wood-aſhes to cool; without which precaution it would break in cooling.'

Mr. Nicholſon now proceeds to conſider the moſt uſeful of all the metals, iron. He relates its properties and various combinations with tolerable accuracy; the production of ink, Pruſſian alkali, &c. He properly obſerves that the compound of iron and ſulphur, neither of the ingredients containing water, might perhaps furniſh data to decide which of the oppoſite ſyſtems in chemiſtry is founded in nature. The author deſcribes the different ſtates in which iron is found, and the methods employed for analiſing the ores and extracting the metal. Iron decompoſes ſal ammoniac by the aſſiſtance of heat, and the

calx produces the ſame effect in the common temperature. He explains the proceſs of converting it into ſteel, and gives an account of the theories which have been lately formed upon the ſubject.—Tin is next in order. It diſſolves in concentrated vitriolic acid, and, by abſorbing oxygen from the acid, converts it into ſulphur. By long ſtanding, or the effuſion of water, a white calx is thrown down. When tin is diſſolved in nitrous acid, volatile alkali is formed. The water is decompoſed, the oxygen calcines the metal, while the hydrogen joins the azote furniſhed by the acid, and compoſes the alkali. The ſolution of tin in *aqua regia* is uſed by the dyers to convert a crimſon colour into a bright ſcarlet. Tin decompoſes ſal ammoniac. With ſulphur it forms the curious maſs named *aurum muſivum*. If the cryſtals of nitrous copper be groſsly powdered, moiſtened, and rolled up in tin-foil, the ſalt deliqueſces, nitrous fumes are emitted, the maſs becomes hot, and ſuddenly takes fire. The ſemi-metals come next to be conſidered. Biſmuth, diſſolved in nitrous acid, ſubſides when the ſolution is diluted with water, in the form of a fine white calx, which is termed the *magiſtery of biſmuth*, and uſed as a coſmetic. The properties of nickel are ſlightly mentioned. Arſenic is a ſubject of more importance, and is treated with greater diffuſion. The calx of cobalt is employed to give the fine blue tinge to glaſs. The ſolution of cobalt in *aqua regia* forms ſympathetic ink, the characters made with which diſappear when dry, but, expoſed to the fire, they become of a fine green, and again loſe the colour by removal. Zinc is a ſemi-metal, diſtinguiſhed by its extreme inflammability. It burns with a dazzling flame, rapidly calcines, and riſes in white flowers, termed *philoſophical wool*. When the calx is urged by a ſtrong heat, it is converted into a yellow glaſs. Zinc, fuſed with vitriolated tartar, abſorbs the oxygen from the acid and forms *liver of ſulphur*. If pulveriſed, it detonates violently with nitre. Zinc decompoſes alum, common ſalt, and ſal ammoniac. It is generally obtained by diſtilling its ore, calamine, with charcoal, and is known in the arts by the name of *ſpelter*. The calx of antimony enters readily into the compoſition of glaſs, and communicates a hyacinthine tinge. The ſemi-metal detonates with nitre, and forms *diaphoretic antimony*. It partly converts vitriolated tartar into liver of ſulphur. The regulus combined with ſulphur is named *crude antimony*. Emetic wine is formed by infuſing powdered glaſs of antimony in white wine. Tartar emetic is a compound of tartar and the calx of antimony. The calx of manganeſe unites in fuſion with earths and ſaline ſubſtances, and communicates a deep red or purple tinge. The colour is heightened by the degree of calcination; and hence inflammable matter diſcharges it, but the addition of nitre

again

again reſtores it. The ore of manganeſe, known in Derbyſhire by the name of *black wadd*, is remarkable for its ſpontaneous inflammation with oil.—Tungſten, or wolfram, is a metal lately diſcovered, the properties of which are not well aſcertained; nor is it certain whether it be not a natural compound. Molybdena is diſtinguiſhed from black-lead by its ſhining ſcaly appearance. It is very ſcarce, and has not been much examined.

Mr. Nicholſon next proceeds to enumerate the combuſtible minerals. Theſe are inflammable air, hepatic air, naptha, petroleum, Barbadoes tar, aſphaltum, mineral tallow, jet, pit-coal, peat, turf, amber, ſulphur, and plumbago. He properly obſerves that moſt of theſe are really animal and vegetable productions, which have undergone various modifications in the bowels of the earth. The diamond alſo muſt be referred to the claſs of combuſtible minerals; for it has been lately diſcovered that, in an intenſe heat, it is totally conſumed, and leaves not the ſmalleſt trace.

Mr. Nicholſon now begins the conſideration of the vegetable kingdom. He makes ſome general remarks upon the functions of organiſed beings, and gives a ſhort account of the various vegetable productions; mucilage, ſugar, ſtarch, gluten, fat oils, eſſential oils, camphor, reſins, the aromatic principle, and the colouring matter.

We have next a tolerably diſtinct view of the ſaline ſubſtances obtained from vegetables. Lemon-juice may be preſerved for ſome time under a thin ſtratum of oil. In the Eaſt-Indies it is evaporated to the conſiſtence of a thick extract. But the beſt method is to congeal the watery part by expoſing it to a cold ſeven or eight degrees below the freezing point. To obtain the acid in its greateſt purity, the lemon-juice ought to be boiled with chalk, and the compound ſalt thus formed decompoſed with vitriolic acid. Another acid, that of apples, is procured by ſaturating the ſour juice with vegetable alkali, adding ſugar of lead, and treating the precipitate with vitriolic acid. The acid of galls is evolved by maceration in water. Ardent ſpirit does not affect the mucilaginous part, but diſſolves the ſalt; and if this ſolution be evaporated, ſmall brilliant cryſtals of a grey yellowiſh colour are obtained. The acid of benzoin is extricated by boiling that fragrant reſin in lime-water, and treating the ſolution with marine acid. The cream of tartar is a compound of vegetable alkali. The acid is obtained in fine cryſtals, by the addition of vitriolic acid and ſlow evaporation. Or lime may be added to the cream of tartar, when the acid will remain in the ſolution, and ſelenite thrown down. The ſalt of ſorrel is an acid obtained by cryſtalliſing the expreſſed juice of the wood-ſorrel and other plants of ſimilar properties.

Some acids are expelled from vegetables by the application of fire; others are obtained by treating them with nitrous acid. The number of theſe have lately been diminiſhed; and it is probable that they are all capable of being converted into each other.

Mr. Nicholſon next proceeds to conſider fermentation, putrefaction, &c. and the production of ardent ſpirit. He deſcribes the proceſs for obtaining æther by treating ſpirit of wine with the vitriolic acid, the nitrous, the marine, the acetous, the phoſphoric, &c. He enumerates the properties and combinations of diſtilled vinegar. He then paſſes to conſider the animal ſubſtances, milk and its products, wax, lac, ſilk, &c. the blood, the bile, the mucilage, &c.

Several uſeful tables are added in an appendix. The comparative heats of different bodies, the weights of different countries, the ſpecific gravities of bodies, ſimple and double elective attractions, and the proportion of the ingredients in earth and ſtones.

In ſhort, we do not refuſe Mr. Nicholſon the merit of a laborious compiler. In no part of his work does he ſeem to exerciſe his own judgment. He has collected a number of facts, but he has deſcribed them in a manner equally confuſed and inelegant. His general views are extremely lame and ſuperficial. Through the whole, he draws his explanations of the phenomena from the oppoſite theories which have been propoſed; and this circumſtance, joined to ſtudied conciſeneſs, involves the ſubject in greater darkneſs. The learner will derive little benefit from the peruſal of the work, and the man of ſcience will treat it with contempt.

ART. IV. *Surgical Tracts, by the late J. O. Juſtamond, F. R. S. Surgeon to the Weſtminſter Hoſpital; conſiſting of, I. Outlines of the Hiſtory of Surgery, from the earlieſt Antiquity of the Art, pointing out the particular Improvements, and fixing them where due. II. An Eſſay on Inflammation and Abſceſs, with their proper Modes of Treatment in different Parts of the Body. III. A Diſſertation on the Effects of Motion and Reſt, and their Application to the Purpoſes of Surgery; from the French Prize Memoir by M. David, with copious additional Annotations on the original Text. IV. Obſervations on Counter-ſtrokes, and an Account of their various Conſequences, Treatment, &c. from the ſame. V. On the Methods employed in treating Cancerous Diſeaſes, including Remarks on the Cure of Indurations of the Breaſt. The whole collected and interſperſed with occaſional Notes and Obſervations by William*

William Houlſton, Member of the Corporation of Surgeons, Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries, and of the Medical Society of London. 4to. 15s. boards. Cadell. London, 1789.

THESE Tracts are the poſthumous productions of one who had acquired a degree of diſtinction in the practice of ſurgery, and who blended with the exerciſe of his profeſſion a variety of literary avocations. Though far from being deſtitute of utility to young ſurgeons, they are publiſhed chiefly from motives of a very different nature, and ſuch as muſt always excite the attention of the benevolent part of mankind. The author, amidſt the moſt flattering proſpects of ſucceſs, had experienced the ſhock of adverſity, and was torn for ever from his neareſt connexions before it was in his power to replace them in the ſituation from which he had fallen. Poſthumous works are always particularly entitled to the candour of criticiſm; the juſtice of which, however, ought never to be violated, even from the moſt tender conſiderations. We ſhall therefore give a ſhort and impartial account of the tracts now before us.

The firſt contains Outlines of the Hiſtory of Surgery, from the remoteſt period down almoſt to the preſent time. In this narrative the author has very properly ſeparated the hiſtorical occurrences of ſurgery from thoſe which relate to the medical art in general; a diſtinction uſually omitted by writers on the ſubject, though particularly neceſſary in the modern hiſtory of two profeſſions. The narrative differs, in ſeveral chronological points, from that of preceding writers, and is detailed with great perſpicuity.

Next follows an Account of the Qualifications neceſſary to form a good Surgeon. Theſe, according to our author, are youth, firmneſs, dexterity, acute ſenſation, ſound judgment, and humanity. By youth he means that period of life when the body and mind may be ſaid to enjoy their full vigour; for he thinks there is a time when, if a man is deſirous to preſerve the reputation he has acquired by long and extenſive practice, he ſhould lay aſide the knife, and content himſelf with ſuperintending the operations of others. The author illuſtrates the ſeveral qualifications above ſpecified with much preciſion, and makes many pertinent obſervations which are worthy of attention.

The Eſſay on Inflammation and Abſceſs, though little diſtinguiſhed by any new obſervations, affords ſtrong proof of the author's judgment, and knowledge in his profeſſion; which induce us to regret that he has not treated of ſome of the ſubjects more copiouſly. His account of the whitloe and its ſeveral diſtinctions, with the reaſons for the treatment recommended, may juſtly be conſidered as highly valuable to young ſurgeons.

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As a ſpecimen of the work, we ſhall inſert the author's obſervations on the two mildeſt ſpecies of whitloe:

'The firſt ſpecies is ſituated round the nail, immediately under the cuticle or epidermis. It is in general a diſeaſe of little conſequence, but may be made troubleſome by ill treatment.

'It begins by forming a little ſwelling, attended with a degree of redneſs, and ſome pain at one corner of the nail. A linen compreſs dipped in ſpirit of wine and camphor, applied moderately tight round the finger, and kept conſtantly moiſt, very frequently proves ſufficient to cure the complaint in a few hours, and prevent the formation of matter. I knew a lady who was very ſubject to frequent attacks of this diſeaſe. She had been taught always to treat it with the good old woman's remedy, a bread and milk poultice, and by this means the complaint frequently laſted a fortnight, and proved extremely worrying and troubleſome. I directed her, as ſoon as ſhe felt the leaſt pain in the finger, to dip the part and wrap it up in ſpirit of wine and camphor. By this management ſhe never afterwards had a whitloe that proceeded to ſuppuration.

'But if, notwithſtanding theſe precautions, matter ſhould ſtill make its appearance, which it generally does at firſt by one white ſpot under the cuticle, we muſt not delay cutting off the cuticle from that ſpot immediately, and from every part of the finger where it is raiſed. The application of a piece of rag, wet in the Goulard water, and renewed when dry, is then ſufficient to cure the diſeaſe in four-and-twenty hours. But if, on that evening, we delay opening the cuticle, which is eaſily ſeparated from the ſubjacent ſkin, it becomes looſened by the matter, which extends perhaps round the finger, and ſometimes a conſiderable way down it, and, what is worſe, deſtroys the adheſion of the nail to the cuticle from which it is produced. Hence there is a neceſſity for caſting off the old nail, and conſequently waiting for the growth of a new one, which makes a tedious and troubleſome diſeaſe of one that would have been well in a few hours if properly treated at the outſet. We ſee therefore, even in the moſt trifling caſes, how much miſchief may be prevented by a little timely attention and obſervation.

'The ſecond ſpecies of whitloe is ſeated immediately in or under the cutis, in the adipoſe membrane about the end of the finger.

'The inflammation being greater here, and alſo the pain, from the greater ſenſibility of the parts concerned, the diſeaſe becomes of a little more conſequence. There is a ſtrong throbbing and pulſation in the part, and a conſiderable elevation of the ſkin. We may attempt to diſperſe this abſceſs by immerſing the finger, for half an hour at a time, in warm water, and by keeping rags, wet with the ſaturnine water, conſtantly applied to the part; but if theſe attempts ſhould fail, the ſooner the matter finds an iſſue outwardly the better; every thing, therefore, that tends to remove the obſtacle to the exit of the matter, ſhould be ſpeedily attempted. The cuticle in theſe parts is very thick, and it often happens that the matter ſhall have got through the ſkin, and ſhall not be able to make its way through the epidermis; for the natural thickneſs of the cuticle is here increaſed by

by the inflammation, and by the practice of ſoaking the part conſtantly in a bread and milk poultice.' This is evident to the ſenſes; for the cuticle becomes white and perfectly opaque, reſembling that of waſherwomen who have been ſoaking their hands all day in water.

'In ſlight caſes of this ſort I have known the ſeparating of the lamellæ of the cuticle from each other, or, in other words, the thinning of the cuticle, prove ſufficient to afford an outlet, either at the time or in a few hours after, to the matter, and to cure the diſeaſe. In ſeveral inſtances, where there exiſted an evident tumour, with no fluctuation, but, from all appearances, a tendency to ſuppuration, I have ſucceeded in preventing farther miſchief by plunging a knife into the prominent part through the ſkin and fat; which effect, I imagine, can only have been produced by unloading the veſſels of the part, in the ſame manner as topical bleeding cures inflammation.'

The next eſſay is a Diſſertation on the Effects of Motion and Reſt. It is an ingenious memoir, and faithfully tranſlated by Mr. Juſtamond, who has ſubjoined to it a number of uſeful annotations. The author firſt explains the effects of motion and reſt, and afterwards points out the indications which are to lead the practitioner in preſcribing motion or reſt reſpectively in ſurgical diſorders.

The tract immediately following is likewiſe a tranſlation from the French, explaining the effects of counter-ſtrokes on the ſeveral parts of the body, and the method of relieving them. It is probable that, had Mr. Juſtamond lived longer, he would have furniſhed this treatiſe alſo with uſeful annotations, which an extenſive knowledge of the ſubject had fully enabled him to ſupply.

The concluding treatiſe, on the Trial of certain Remedies for the Cure of Cancers, &c. is a republication of one of Mr. Juſtamond's former productions. It evinces great judgment, as well as obſervation, on the treatment of thoſe obſtinate diſorders.

From the whole of theſe tracts Mr. Juſtamond's abilities, as a ſcientific and well-informed ſurgeon, appear to unqueſtionable advantage; and were there wanting any proof of his induſtry in the improvement of chirurgical knowledge, it is amply exhibited in this collection of detached eſſays, which we are glad to ſee reſcued from oblivion by the laudable attention of the preſent editor, and the generous co-operation of the ſubſcribers towards the publication of the work.

ART.

ART. V. *The Poor Soldier; an American Tale: founded on a recent Fact. Inſcribed to Mrs. Creſpigny.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Walter. London, 1789.

THIS poem, the production of a female pen, has ſeveral claims at leaſt to a ſprig of Parnaſſian bays. If the deſign of the poet to expand the boſom to all the feelings of benevolence by teaching us to ſeek for objects every where; to relate the hiſtory of a virtuous ſufferer; and laſtly to pay ſome tribute to the amiable exertions of her patroneſs; be in itſelf commendable, we may aſſure our readers theſe are not the only merits of the performance. Many poetical deſcriptions, ſome degree of imagery, and a mind warmly engaged in the ſubject, are diſcoverable in every part; nor is there a want of ſomething like the order and arrangement neceſſary to the ſtructure of a poem. In what then is it deficient? We might ſay in adhering to truth in the firſt inſtance; and next in too ſtrictly conforming to thoſe rules which are conſidered as eſſential to diſtinguiſh poetry from proſe. An ingenious writer, whoſe works we have lately reviewed with much pleaſure, places this diſtinction in the excluſion of all abſtract ideas from the language of poetry. We were much pleaſed with this definition, but are now obliged to add, that the ſubject of a poem may come ſo near to common life, as not eaſily to admit a very familiar and exact detail of circumſtances. The Poor Soldier is an American loyaliſt, who, after ſuffering the loſs of his property and family in America, comes to England in hopes of being received into Chelſea hoſpital. His ſubſequent calamities to his death make the remainder of the poem. The beſt contrived parts are the ſcenes in America, which, not being familiar to Engliſh readers, admit of that cloſe detail which can alone render poetry intereſting. The following deſcription of a modern ſkirmiſh and a rally, are as poetical as the ſubject will admit, without diveſting it of truth:

'Now, front to front, our hoſtile legions ſtand,
And anxious wait the ſignal of command.
Barbaric war-whoops pierce the echoing ſky,
Provincial trumpets louder ſtill reply;
While, by the deep-mouth'd cannon's thundering ſound,
Ear-thrilling yells and martial blaſts are drown'd.
A bloody ſtrife enſues—Death's iron car
Triumphant ranges o'er the field of war.
Long time doth fortune equal hold the ſcale,
But England's mighty arms at laſt prevail:
Rebellion's ſons in broken ranks retire,
Save on one ſpot, where, with heroic fire,

A brave

A brave provincial wakes the ſlumbering zeal
Of every private for the public weal.
'Yield not, my friends! (the *rebel-patriot* cries;)
Your bleeding country on your aid relies!
O ſave her liberty, preſerve her laws,
Or greatly fall in Freedom's glorious cauſe!'
'He ceas'd—the rebel train his words obey,
And boldly follow where he leads the way.
'Twas mine to ſtop th' intrepid warrior's courſe;
But vain my efforts, vain my utmoſt force!
Till, hurl'd from Indian hands, a whirring dart
Reſiſtleſs came, and pierc'd his manly heart—
He reel'd—he fell—and, gaſping ſore for breath,
Faintly exclaim'd, 'I die a glorious death!
Yield not, my countrymen!—our foes retire—
Nor, with your chief, let Freedom's cauſe expire!'

If we contraſt this with the deſcription of Felicia going to the war-office in order to gain a ſettlement for her protegé, we ſhall ſee how difficult it is to give familiar objects a poetic air:

'Thus buſied, to that pile Felicia came
Which from barbaric war derives its name.
She ſtops—and to the martial office goes,
Where, with kind zeal, ſhe pleads her veteran's woes
To one whoſe open brow proclaims a ſoul
Pliant to gentle Pity's ſoft control:
'This youth—but wherefore, muſe, neglect to breathe
A name that merits Honour's brighteſt wreath?
(If active warm Benevolence may plead
A ſacred title to that envied meed;)
Randole thus anſwers ſtraight the anxious fair:
'To gallant Howard, Chelſea's chief, repair,
Since he, and he alone, can grant thy pray'r.'
'Alas! I know him not' (Felicia ſighs);
'Yet ſeek him, lady, (ardent Randole cries).
He joys the friendleſs ſoldier to relieve;
He bids the child of ſorrow ceaſe to grieve;
For ſweet philanthropy, angelic gueſt!
Hath fix'd her empire in his noble breaſt.'
'Thus urg'd, Felicia heſitates no more;
But inſtant bends her courſe to Howard's door:
Yet vain her ſpeed—the chief is far away—
But learning that the next revolving day
Chelſea's brave rulers will in council meet,
The fair, with warmeſt charity replete,
Reſolves thoſe baſhful feelings to control,
Which oft o'erwhelm with dread the female ſoul,
And, in the virtue of her motive bold,
Before the chiefs her ſtory to unfold.'

We

We observed before that the poem is regularly constructed; that is, it begins in the middle of the hero's history, and he is afterwards introduced as relating the earlier parts of it to Felicia, who, meeting him in the street, very benevolently interests herself in his behalf. But by these means Felicia is so constantly before us that we almost lose sight of the principal character. We mean not to detract from the merits of this lady, or the propriety of marking so amiable a character to the world; but the poem is entitled the Poor Soldier, and we must not deviate from Horace's rule:

Denique sit quidvis, simplex
Duntaxat et unum.

On the whole, therefore, whatever merit we may admit to many parts of this performance, we are obliged to confess either that the subject would not admit of poetic ornaments, or that the poet has been too often unhappy in her choice of them.

ART. VI. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, Vol. LXXVIII. For the Year* 1788. *Part II.* 4to. 8s. 6d. sewed. Davis. London, 1788.

Art. XIV. OBSERVATIONS on the Natural History of the Cuckoo. By Mr. Edward Jenner. In a Letter to John Hunter, Esq. F.R.S. This paper is curious and entertaining. The facts, though extraordinary, seem to be well authenticated. The more we contemplate the works of Nature, we are the more astonished at that wonderful instinct which directs her creatures:

'The first appearance of cuckoos in Gloucestershire (the part of England where these observations were made) is about the 17th of April. The song of the male, which is well known, soon proclaims its arrival. The song of the female (if the peculiar notes of which it is composed may be so called) is widely different, and has been so little attended to, that I believe few are acquainted with it. I know not how to convey to you a proper idea of it by a comparison with the notes of any other bird; but the cry of the dab-chick bears the nearest resemblance to it.

'Unlike the generality of birds, cuckoos do not pair. When a female appears on the wing, she is often attended by two or three males, who seem to be earnestly contending for her favours. From the time of her appearance, till after the middle of summer, the nests of the birds selected to receive her eggs are to be found in great abundance; but, like the other migrating birds, she does not begin to lay till some weeks after her arrival. I never could procure

an

an egg till after the middle of May, though probably an early-coming cuckoo may produce one sooner.

'The cuckoo makes choice of the nests of a great variety of small birds. I have known its egg entrusted to the care of the hedge-sparrow; the water-wagtail, the titlark, the yellow-hammer, the green linnet, and the whinchat. Among these it generally selects the three former; but shews a much greater partiality to the hedge-sparrow than to any of the rest: therefore, for the purpose of avoiding confusion, this bird only, in the following account, will be considered as the foster-parent of the cuckoo, except in instances which are particularly specified.

'The hedge-sparrow commonly takes up four or five days in laying her eggs. During this time (generally after she has laid one or two) the cuckoo contrives to deposit her egg among the rest, leaving the future care of it entirely to the hedge-sparrow. This intrusion often occasions some discomposure; for the old hedge-sparrow at intervals, whilst she is sitting, not unfrequently throws out some of her own eggs, and sometimes injures them in such a way that they become addle; so that it more frequently happens that only two or three hedge-sparrow's eggs are hatched with the cuckoo's than otherwise: but whether this be the case or not, she sits the same length of time as if no foreign egg had been introduced, the cuckoo's egg requiring no longer incubation than her own. However, I have never seen an instance where the hedge-sparrow has either thrown out or injured the egg of the cuckoo.'

The subsequent part of the paper affords a strong instance of the partial conduct of Nature. The individual suffers pain for the benefit of the whole; and one part of the system is supported by the destruction of another. The young hedge-sparrows are turned out of their maternal habitation, and left cruelly to perish. It is their foster-brother that performs the unnatural deed. The fact is curious and almost paradoxical. The little animal contrives to get the bird upon its back, clambers up the side of the nest, and throws it out with a jirk. When it is two or three days old it is restless and uneasy, and makes extraordinary exertions to exclude its rivals.

The egg of the cuckoo is small, resembling the house-sparrow's, and weighs from forty to fifty grains. No more than one is deposited in the same nest. The chirp of the young cuckoo is plaintive; nor does it ever acquire the adult note during its stay in this country. It feeds upon various insects and seeds. A ball of hair of the size of a pea, and curiously wound up, is often found in its stomach. In this, as well as its early ferocity, it resembles a bird of prey.

Mr. Jenner promises to give a paper upon the migration of birds, which must be extremely acceptable.

Art. XV. Of the Temperament of those Musical Instruments in which the Tones, Keys, or Frets, are fixed, as in the Harpsichord,

Harpsichord, Organ, Guitar, &c. By Mr. Tiberius Cavallo, F. R. S. Theoretical writers on music have involved the science in an air of mystery. We are glad to find Mr. Cavallo treat the subject with his usual simplicity and perspicuity. The divisions of the diatonic scale are well known. If the whole length of the musical chord be reckoned 1, the first note or C will be sounded by a portion as 1; the second or D by $\frac{8}{9}$; the third or E by $\frac{4}{5}$; the fourth or F by $\frac{3}{4}$; the fifth or G by $\frac{2}{3}$; the sixth or A by $\frac{3}{5}$; the seventh or B by $\frac{8}{15}$; and the octave or c by $\frac{1}{2}$. To these simple seven sounds the musicians have since added five intermediate notes, which are termed flats or sharps. These are, the second minor $\frac{15}{16}$, the third minor $\frac{5}{6}$, the fourth major $\frac{32}{45}$, and the seventh major $\frac{5}{8}$. The octave can be made the key, and the other notes formed by the proportional subdivision. The fifth also, being expressed by a small fraction, serves sometimes for the foundation of a scale which is termed the occasional key. These fundamentals give rise to two series of notes which never exactly coincide. The nearest intermediate notes are taken, and the correction which must be applied is termed *temperament*. Seven octaves are nearly equal to twelve fifths; for $(\frac{2}{3})^{12}$ is nearly $= (\frac{1}{2})^{7}$. The exact value of $(\frac{1}{2})^{\frac{7}{12}}$ is 1,498, &c. and the whole chord, being divided by this number, will give the first tempered fifth, and this again the second tempered fifth, and so on. Mr. Cavallo actually tempered a monochord in this way, and tuned a harpsichord by it, which, on whatever key it was played, was harmonious throughout.

Art. XVI. Description of a new Electrical Instrument capable of collecting together a diffused or little condensed Quantity of Electricity. By Mr. Tiberius Cavallo, F. R. S. Mr. Cavallo, in a former paper, has pointed out the defects of the instruments hitherto proposed for examining small quantities of electricity. In the present he proposes an instrument which seems liable to few objections. The principle is the same with that of Volta's electrophorus. To the shorter sides of a flat tin plate, thirteen inches long and eight broad, are soldered two tin tubes, which are open at both ends. Two glass sticks covered with sealing-wax, by means of heat are cemented into these, and support the plate in a vertical position. Two frames of wood are fastened to the bottom boards by means of brass hinges, and may be placed parallel and at the distance of one fifth of an inch from the tin plate. The application of the instrument is easy.

Art. XVII. On the Conversion of a Mixture of dephlogisticated and phlogisticated Air into nitrous Acid, by the electric Spark.

Spark. By Henry Cavendish, Esq. F. R. S. and A. S. The beautiful experiment in which Mr. Cavendish converted into nitrous acid a mixture of the oxygenous gas and atmospheric air, by passing through it repeated electric sparks, is delicate and laborious. Several philosophers upon the continent have tried to repeat it, but without success. Mr. Cavendish therefore directed the experiment to be performed before some of the principal members of the Royal Society, and thus completely ascertained his important discovery. Atmospheric air and oxygenous gas from turbith mineral, were confined in a bent glass tube by columns of soap-lees and quicksilver. As the acid was gradually formed, it was absorbed by the soap-lees, and produced nitre. The oxygenous gas seems to be rather more than double of the azotic in the composition of nitre.

Art. XVIII. Experiments on the Effect of various Substances in lowering the Point of Congelation in Water. By Charles Blagden, M. D. Sec. R. S. and F. A. S. Dr. Blagden has prosecuted this subject with minute accuracy. He has made several curious remarks with regard to the appearance of the crystals formed, the transparency of the solutions, &c. which we cannot abridge. It appears that, if we denote the proportional quantities of certain salts dissolved in water by n, the point of congelation of the solutions will be expressed by these simple formulæ: Common salt $32°-n\times 112°$, nitre $34°-48°\times n$, sal ammoniac $32°-120°\times n$, Rochelle salt $32°-22°\times n$, sal catharticus amarus $32°-16°\times n$, green vitriol $32-10°\times n$, white vitriol $32°-10°\times n$. These experiments seem to confirm the principle of De Luc, that the greatest cold produced by a mixture of any salt and snow is the same with which a saturated would freeze. After water has taken up as much of one salt as it can dissolve, it is still capable of dissolving a portion of a second, or even of a third salt. Dr. Blagden has found that the compound effect of these, in sinking the freezing point, is nearly equal to the sum of the depressions which they could make if they were separately applied. Thus a solution of $\frac{1}{16}$ of Rochelle salt, $\frac{1}{10}$ common salt, and $\frac{1}{17}$ sal ammoniac, congealed at 13°. The separate effects are, of the Rochelle salt $\frac{22}{16}°=2°,2$, common salt $\frac{112}{10}°=11°,2$, sal ammoniac $\frac{120}{17}=7°$. The sum of these depressions is 20°,4, or at the point 11°,6, which nearly agrees. Hence the important fact, that snow produces a more intense cold with a mixture of several salts than with a single salt. Hence also the frigorific powers of compound solutions. This has been noticed in the Memoirs of the French Academy of Sciences so far back as 1700; but it has lately been revived and extended.

Dr. Blagden next relates the reſult of his experiments upon certain ſubſtances which, by equal additions, depreſs the freezing point of water in an *increaſing ratio.* Vitriolic acid, whoſe ſpecific gravity was 1,837 at 62°, congealed at 32°—98°×*n* nearly; ſmoking nitrous acid, whoſe ſpecific gravity was 1,454, at 32°—106°×*n*, nearly; muriatic acid of 1,163, at 32°—80°×*n*, nearly; ſalt of tartar 32°—54°×*n*, nearly; mineral alkali, 32°—21°×*n*; volatile alkali 32°—68°×*n*; ſpirit of wine, of the ſpecific gravity 829, at 32°—70°×*n*. Water begins to expand at the temperature of 40°; and it appears that an addition of ſalt reduces the expanſion to 8° above the depreſſed point of congelation.

Art. XIX. Additional Experiments and Obſervations relating to the Principle of Acidity, the Decompoſition of Water and Phlogiſton. By Joſeph Prieſtley, LL.D. F.R.S. With Letters to him on the Subject, by Dr. Withering and James Keir, Eſq. This paper contains ſome additional remarks upon the experiment which this ingenious philoſopher made by inflaming a mixture of the oxygenous and hydrogenous gaſes. The quantity of acid produced was ſo *ſmall* that the doctor was at a loſs to decide its *ſpecies.* His philoſophical friends examined the liquor by various teſts, and found it to be *nitrous* acid. We have already ſhewn, we hope, that this *minute* portion of acid is derived from the *impurity* of the gaſes, and that the experiment does not affect the theory of Lavoiſier. Phlogiſton is the *proteus* of the *conſtitutional* chemiſts. It is a phantom which aſſumes various ſhapes, according to the fancy of the inquirer. Many phenomena, indeed, can be well explained by both ſyſtems. In the one there is an *abſtraction*; in the other an *accumulation.* But the theory which is formed upon the continent poſſeſſes a clearneſs, a preciſion, and an elegance, which ſet it upon a firm baſis.

Art. XX. On the Probabilities of Survivorſhips between two Perſons of any given Age, and the Method of determining the Values of Reverſions depending on thoſe Survivorſhips. By Mr. William Morgan. Communicated by the Rev. Richard Price, D.D. F.R.S. The hypotheſis of De Moivre with regard to the probability of the duration of human life is extremely ſimple, and tolerably accurate. He ſuppoſes that out of eighty-ſix perſons born at the ſame time, one dies annually till the whole number be extinguiſhed. The chance that a perſon, therefore, ſhall attain the age of *n* years is $\frac{86-n}{86}$, that of $n+1$, $\frac{85-n}{86}$, that of $n+2$, $\frac{84-n}{86}$, &c. Whence the chance that a perſon

person of the age n shall survive the present year is $\frac{85-n}{86-n}$; and the chance that he shall die within the year is $\frac{1}{86-n}$. By the help of these data the several problems in the doctrine of annuities can be solved with considerable elegance. But the hypothesis is particularly erroneous with regard to the early and the very advanced periods of life; and in the case of joint-lives and of survivorships, the errors are prodigiously increased. Recourse must therefore be had to tables of real observations. Mr. Morgan, in the paper before us, has pointed out some mistakes into which his predecessors have fallen, and has shewn the proper mode of investigation.—Suppose that the ages of two persons, A and B, were given to determine the probability of survivorship. Let A denote the number of persons living at the age of A the younger, and a', a'', a''', &c. the decrements of life at the end of the 1st, 2d, 3d, &c. years. Let b represent the number of persons alive at the age of B, and c, d, e, &c. those living at the end of the 1st, 2d, 3d, &c. years. The event that B shall survive A during the first year may take place in two ways; either A may expire during that time, or both. The chance that A dies the first year is $\frac{a'}{a}$, and that B survives that time is $\frac{c}{b}$; the chance, therefore, that both events take place is $\frac{a'c}{ab}$. The probability that both lives are extinguished during the first year is $\frac{a'}{a} \times \frac{b-c}{b}$; but the priority of the deaths is indifferent; the half of this fraction, or $\frac{a'(b-c)}{2ab}$, will therefore express the chance that A dies first. Hence the whole probability that B will survive in the first year is $\frac{a'c}{ab} + \frac{a'(b-c)}{2ab}$, or $\frac{a'(b+c)}{2ab}$; and so on for the successive years. Hence the whole probability of B's surviving A will be $= \frac{1}{ab}\left(\frac{b+c}{2}.\ a' + \frac{c+d}{2}.\ a'' + \frac{d+e}{2}.\ a''',\ \&c.\right)$

Mr. Morgan has taken the trouble to calculate, from these principles and the Northampton Observations, some useful tables, which accompany this paper.

Art. XXI. An Account of a remarkable Transposition of the Viscera. By Matthew Baillie, M. D. In a Letter to John

Hunter, Eſq. F. R. S. It is curious to obſerve how Nature ſports in her productions. In her wild excurſions ſhe is perhaps more aſtoniſhing than in her uniform plans. In theſe unguarded moments, ſhe ſometimes lays aſide part of that myſtery with which ſhe is commonly enveloped; and hence the detection of her deviations often throws light upon her ordinary courſe. The ſubject of this paper is a monſter of a ſingular kind. The *luſus* was wholly internal, and eſcaped common obſervation. The perſon was a male near forty years of age, ſomewhat above the middle ſize, and of a clean active ſhape. Upon diſſection the parts were found reverſed. The right auricles and ventricles of the heart occupied the place of the left. The right lung was divided into two lobes, and the left into three; exactly contrary to what is found in ordinary caſes. A ſimilar tranſpoſition took place in the abdomen. The blood veſſels were very irregular in their poſitions and ramifications. The ſtructure of the brain and of the organs of ſenſe, offered nothing remarkable.

Art. XXII. On the Georgian Planet and its Satellites. By William Herſchell, LL. D. F. R. S. We may ſtate the general reſult of Dr. Herſchell's obſervations with regard to the ſatellites of the new planet. The diameter is 34,217 miles, and, ſeen from the earth, it ſubtends an angle of 4″. The bulk of the planet is eighty times that of the earth, and its denſity about $\frac{1}{4}$. The firſt ſatellite performs its revolution in 8 days 17 hours 1′ 19″, and its diſtance is 33″; the ſecond revolves in 13 days 11 hours and 5 minutes, and at the diſtance of 44″$\frac{1}{2}$. Its axis is above 80° inclined to the ecliptic.

Art. XXIII. Experiments on the Formation of Volatile Alkali, and on the Affinities of the Phlogiſticated and light Inflammable Airs. By William Auſtin, M. D. Fellow of the College of Phyſicians. Communicated by Charles Blagden, M. D. Sec. R. S. The reſolution of volatile alkali into the hydrogenous and azotic gas had occurred to ſeveral chemiſts, but it was firſt completely demonſtrated by the ingenious M. Berthollet. Several attempts have been made to recompoſe the alkali from theſe elaſtic fluids, but without ſucceſs. When hydrogen and azote aſſume the elaſtic form, they abſorb a large portion of caloric, which increaſes with their rarity; and they cannot be brought to combine, unleſs a ſubſtance be preſented which has a ſtronger attraction for the matter of heat. Dr. Auſtin tried to deprive them of their latent heat, and to form an union by the application of cold and the addition of other gaſes; but did not ſucceed. Hence theſe gaſes cannot be converted into volatile alkali, except at the inſtance of their extrication. If powdered tin be moiſtened with nitrous acid and fixed alkali, or quick-lime be

be added, the ſmell of volatile alkali is immediately perceived. In this caſe the oxygen from the water and the acid unite to the metal, while the hydrogen and azote form volatile alkali. The fixed alkali ſeems only to aſſiſt the decompoſition. Dr. Auſtin ſucceeded in a very beautiful experiment. He introduced azotic gas into a cylindrical glaſs tube inverted in quickſilver, and afterwards iron-filings, moiſtened with diſtilled water. The hydrogen detached from the water by the contact of the iron, united with the azotic gas, and formed volatile alkali. The experiment ſucceeds with atmoſpheric air, though it requires a longer time to be manifeſt. Hence when it ruſts in contact with water, it forms volatile alkali. The component gaſes are conſtantly produced in all parts of the earth; and hence the origin of volatile alkali in coal mines and in volcanos. It appears the quantity of azotic gas in alkaline air is about four times that of the hydrogen.

Art. XXIV. Some Properties of the Sum of the Diviſors of Numbers. By Edward Waring, M. D. F. R. S. This paper contains ſome curious analytical diſquiſitions. It is to be conſidered as an addition to a treatiſe publiſhed ſeveral years ago by the author, entitled *Meditationes Algebraicæ*. From its nature it does not admit of abridgment.

Art. XXV. Experiments on the Production of artificial Cold. By Mr. Richard Walker, Apothecary to the Radcliffe Infirmary at Oxford. In a Letter to Henry Cavendiſh, Eſq. F. R. S. and A. S. When a body is converted from a ſolid to a fluid ſtate, a quantity of its heat diſappears, or becomes *latent*. This beautiful diſcovery of the great Dr. Black is undoubtedly one of the moſt important in the ſcience of chemiſtry. It has extended our views of the nature of heat, and thrown light upon many natural phenomena. Hence cold is produced during the ſolution of any ſalt in water. The people of India employ ſaltpetre to cool their liquors. This is, in ſome degree, the effect of every ſaline ſolution; but the intenſity of the cold depends upon the capacity of the ſalt for heat, and its degree of ſolubility. After water is completely ſaturated with one ſpecies of ſalt, it can ſtill diſſolve conſiderable portions of other kinds. Hence in this way a greater quantity of ſolid matter may be converted into fluid, and conſequently a more intenſe degree of cold produced. The mixtures which Mr. Walker has diſcovered are moſt powerfully frigorific. Cryſtalliſed nitrated ammonia, reduced to very fine powder, ſunk the thermometer, during its ſolution in rain water, 49°. Equal parts of ſal ammoniac and nitre in powder, make a cheap and convenient compoſition for producing cold. It ſinks the thermometer 36°. Equal parts of nitrated ammonia and mineral alkali produce a cold even

of 57°. But one of the most powerful mixtures is two parts fuming nitrous acid and one part water, well mixed, and reduced to the temperature of the atmosphere, 4 Glauber's salt, $3\frac{1}{2}$ nitrated ammoniac. This depresses the thermometer 52°.—Upon the whole, these experiments are not only curious, but may prove beneficial to mankind. By those frigorific mixtures we may always produce ice in our climate, and even in the tropical regions; as the mean annual temperature seldom exceeds 80° we may generally be able to bring on congelation. The method proposed by the evaporation of æther is more expensive, and, requiring the assistance of the air-pump, it is very inconvenient.

Art. XXVI. A Description of an Instrument which, by the turning of a Winch, produces the Two States of Electricity without Friction or Communication with the Earth. In a Letter from Mr. William Nicholson to Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. P. R. S. This appears to be an ingenious and elegant instrument; but it would be difficult to convey a distinct idea of it without the assistance of a figure. It is constructed upon the principle discovered by Volta, that the capacity of bodies for the electrical fluid is increased by their apposition. It bears a considerable resemblance to Bennet's doubler, and confirms the remark of Cavallo, that the electrical equilibrium which subsists among connected bodies is not quite perfect.

Art. XXVII. Abstract of a Register of the Barometer, Thermometer, and Rain, at Lyndon in Rutland; with the Rain in Hampshire and Surrey, in 1787. Also some Account of the annual Growth of Trees. By Thomas Barker, Esq. Communicated by Thomas White, Esq. F. R. S. The greatest height of the mercury in the barometer was 30,13 inches, the lowest 28,15, and the medium 29,415. The medium temperature of the year 50°. It is curious to observe the great difference in the quantity of rain fallen near the same place. In the small county of Rutland the fall at one place was 36 inches, in another only 22.—The growth of the oak and ash is nearly the same, about an inch in girth annually. Hence large trees acquire greater additions to their bulk in the same time than small ones.

Art. XXVIII. On the Era of the Mahometans, called the Hejera. By William Marsden, Esq. F. R. S. and A. S. The flight of Mahomet from Mecca to Medina was, eighteen years afterwards, distinguished as the crisis of the new religion, and established as an epoch to which the transactions of the faithful should in future be referred. It commenced at sunset, from which the Arabs begin their day, on Thursday the 15th July, A. D. 622. The Mahometan year consists of twelve lunar months, without any intercalation; and therefore it anticipates the

the completion of the ſolar year, and revolves through all the ſeaſons. There are, however, two modes of reckoning; the vulgar and political. In the former the year commences from the firſt appearance of the new moon, on the evening of the firſt or ſecond day after the conjunction. This is announced by perſons placed on the pinnacles of the moſques, and other elevated places, to the people below, who welcome it with the ſound of inſtruments, firing of guns, and other demonſtrations of reſpect and zeal. The political mode of reckoning was regulated by a cycle of thirty years. The mean ſynodic revolution, according to the Arabs, was 29 days and $12\frac{792}{1080}$ hours; and conſequently the lunar year conſiſted of 354 days $8\frac{864}{1080}$ hours.—We cannot omit to obſerve the aſtoniſhing accuracy of the aſtronomical obſervations made in the Eaſt; the country whence we derived our arts, our ſcience, and our religion. The length of the Arabian lunar month differs only three ſeconds from the moſt accurate modern obſervations. The fraction $\frac{11}{30}$ of a day is exactly 8 hours and 48 minutes, or $8\frac{864}{1080}$ hours, the exceſs of the lunar year above 354 days. Hence the cycle conſiſted of 11 years of 355 days, and 19 of 354. The whole error amounted, in a period of thirty years, only to 18 minutes. How much ſuperior to the clumſy intercalations employed in Europe! The Mahometan months conſiſt alternately of 29 and 30 days; but in the years of exceſs an intercalary day is beſides added to the laſt month. The annual anticipation of Mahometan years, 10 days and 21 hours, or nearly 11 days. Hence their periods may be calculated. The preſent year of the Hejera, 1204, began on Monday, 21ſt September, 1789; the next, 1205, commences on Friday, 10th September, 1790, &c.

This elegant and ingenious paper cloſes with a table exhibiting the correſpondent years of the Hejera with thoſe of the Chriſtian era.

ART. VII. *Travels to diſcover the Source of the Nile, in the Years* 1768, 1769, 1770, 1771, 1772, *and* 1773. *In Five Volumes. By James Bruce, of Kinnaird, Eſq. F. R. S.* 4to. 5l. 5s. boards. Edinburgh, printed: G. G. J. and J. Robinſon, London. 1790.

AT laſt, after the lapſe of full ſixteen years, when the long delay had nearly changed hope into deſpair, the deſire of the learned and inquiſitive of every nation is gratified; and the general burſt of impatient curioſity will welcome theſe volumes by exclamations like thoſe with which Æneas receives the ghoſt of Hector:

Quæ tantæ tenuêre moræ? quibus--ab oris,
Expectate, venis?

We, for our parts, make haſte to gratify our readers with a full and diſtinct account of a work expected ſo long, and ſo ardently deſired; for in theſe days of rapid communication and widely diffuſed information, we may fairly preſume that there is no individual, in any degree attentive to literature and ſcience, to whom the name of ABYSSINIAN BRUCE is either unknown or indifferent. To moſt of thoſe alſo whom the vague deſire of ſeeing curious things, or the tenor of their particular ſtudies has led to the Britiſh botanic gardens, it muſt have happened to ſee ſome ſpecimens of thoſe vegetable treaſures which the adventurous traveller gathered on his long and perilous expedition. Among theſe, that which ſaved the life, and bears the name of its diſcoverer, the Brucea Antidyſenterica, is, if we miſtake not, the moſt common. From the new plants, therefore, received as ſuch by the univerſal conſent of botaniſts, there ariſes a ſufficient proof that the importer muſt have viſited regions unknown and unexplored.

As in ſitting down to a book of this nature every reader feels diſſatisfied and uncomfortable till his notions are in ſome meaſure ſettled as to the degree of credit to which the narrative is entitled, we begin by oppoſing the abovementioned ſtrong preſumption to the tale of calumny, that has put on an hundred forms, and been whiſpered into the ears of tens of thouſands. To this tale we conjecture, and not merely to Baron Tott, that numerous and ſtrong proteſtations of veracity, diſperſed through the different volumes, allude; and we ſuppoſe of courſe the author to be no ſtranger to it, though it is no where formally refuted, or even diſtinctly noticed. And why ſhould one, who has never been regularly accuſed, enter upon a ſuperfluous defence? There is, beſides, no want of other external evidence, ſuch as muſt immediately diſpel whatever miſt of doubt, the circulation of an anecdote improbable and ſcandalous, might ſpread over Mr. Bruce's pages. In truth, the anecdote, as we have often heard it related, is, if properly conſidered, foreign to the queſtion concerning the authenticity of the travels; if true in the moſt unfavourable ſtatement, it would only ſhew, what is ſo commonly ſeen, how a man in converſation with a perſonage placed in a very elevated ſtation may be diſconcerted, or a ſudden ſwell of vanity hurry him into an imprudent aſſertion, and render him not ſo much criminal as ridiculous.

In the examination of this work many readers will go along with us with minds more at eaſe if we produce, of that other external evidence, ſo much as leads us irreſiſtably to believe that

that the author must really have visited distant regions, and that those regions are Abyssinia itself, where the head of every Frank is devoted the moment he crosses the fatal boundary, and 'from 'whose bourne,' according to another usage, 'no traveller re-'turns,' without great difficulty, even of those who are permitted to enter the country. It was therefore doubly improbable that any European should bring back an account of the spot where the Nile has for ages concealed his long-sought head. M. de Buffon, in the advertisement prefixed to the third volume of his Natural History of Birds, acknowledges, in strong terms, the advantage he had derived from our traveller's communications. 'I have,' says he, 'to mention some assistance I have 'very lately received; it is the open and generous communica-'tion of Mr. Bruce's observations and information. In survey-'ing the immense collection of *drawings which he himself had* '*taken and coloured*, I was struck with astonishment; he has 'made perfect representations of animals, birds, fishes, plants, 'buildings, arms, dress, &c. of the different nations; no object 'has escaped his curiosity, and every thing has been grasped by 'his talents.' This illustrious testimony, however it may have contributed still more to raise curiosity, already at an high pitch, seems not so much to our purpose as some other information of a later date.

The Baron de Tott having insinuated that Mr. Bruce was never at the sources of the Nile, because Mr. Bruce's servant (who was with him in Abyssinia) said at Cairo that he never accompanied his master to any such spot, a warm defence, attributed to Mr. D. Barrington, appeared in the Review of the late Mr. Maty for March 1786. The material part of this defence is a letter from Mr. Antes at Cairo, which states 'that 'Mr. Bruce left Cairo in 1768, and proceeded thence into 'Abyssinia, by way of Jedda, Masuah, and Arquico; that in '1771 a Greek came from Gondar with a draft from Mr. Bruce 'on a French merchant at Cairo, for several hundred German 'crowns, and a letter; that Mr. Antes was present at a con-'versation between Mr. Bruce and two Armenians from Abys-'sinia, who seemed glad to see him again; that the Franciscan 'friars at Assouan, the highest town in Upper Egypt, are 'ready to attest his return by Nubia and Upper Egypt; that 'Mr. Antes often conversed with Michael, Mr. Bruce's Greek 'servant, who is stated to have by no means had a lively ima-'gination, and who always agreed with the circumstances men-'tioned by his master, and more particularly in relation to their 'having visited the sources of the Nile, which the Baron Tott 'doubts of, from having had a conversation with this same 'Greek servant; that Baron Tott stayed but a few days at

'Cairo;

'Cairo; and, from his ſhort reſidence in that country, has 'given ſeveral erroneous accounts relative to Egypt; that Mr. 'Antes converſed with others who had known Mr. Bruce in 'Abyſſinia.' Upon the force and tendency of this evidence, which we have given nearly in the words of Mr. Antes, no commentary is neceſſary. It muſt needs be admitted, unleſs we wantonly ſuppoſe a combination to propagate falſehood where there could be no inducement on the part of Mr. Antes.

But nothing rendered us ſo eagerly deſirous of the preſent publication, or prediſpoſed us ſo much in its favour, as ſome information lately communicated by a perſon inceſſantly watchful to promote the intereſts of every kind of learning. This information may be found in a converſation between Sir William Jones and Abram, an Abyſſinian, as it is inſerted in the *Aſiatic Reſearches*, Vol. I. p. 383. Sir William having made ſeveral inquiries, is thus anſwered by Abram: 'All theſe matters are, I ſuppoſe, explained in the 'writings of YAKUB, whom I ſaw thirteen years ago at 'Gwender; he was a phyſician, and had attended the king's 'brother, who was alſo a vazir, in his laſt illneſs. The prince 'died; yet the king loved YAKUB; and indeed all the court and 'people loved him. The king received him in his palace as a 'gueſt, ſupplied him with every thing he could want, and when 'he went to ſee the ſources of the Nile and other curioſities, 'for he was extremely curious, he received every poſſible 'aſſiſtance and accommodation from the royal favour; he 'underſtood the languages, and wrote and collected many 'books, which he carried' *away* 'with him.' It was impoſſible, adds the celebrated orientaliſt, for me to doubt, eſpecially when he deſcribed the perſon of YAKUB, that he meant James Bruce, Eſq. who travelled in the dreſs of a Syrian phyſician, and probably aſſumed with judgment a name well known in Abyſſinia, &c. Yagoubé is the way Mr. Bruce ſpells the name; not aſſumed, as the preſident of the Aſiatic Society imagines, but his own name of baptiſm, James, Jacobus, Yakub, Yagoubé. Sir William Jones adds that he has ſeen our traveller mentioned with great regard in a letter from an Arabian merchant at Mokha, and rightly conjectures that he entered Abyſſinia by the way of Muſuwwa, or, according to Mr. Bruce's orthography, Maſuah.

Having thus ſettled with the reader ſo much of our preliminaries as relates to the general authenticity of Mr. Bruce's narrative, our eſtimate of the credibility of particulars muſt be given as we find them occurring in different parts of his extenſive journal: and let it not be ſuppoſed that in this previous declaration of ſuſpiciouſneſs and ſcrupuloſity, there is any thing diſparaging to the relater. We have to peruſe the deſcription

of a country extremely diſſimilar to our own, and having many peculiarities of climate, ſoil, and ſurface; of a people cut off from mankind, and therefore offering many temptations to him who delineates them to employ too bold ſtrokes, and colours too glaring. We are taught by examples, far too frequent, how common it is to give to the public erroneous accounts of adjacent countries, notwithſtanding a wrong repreſentation muſt endanger the author's reputation, either for good faith or judgment, where it is ſo eaſy to compare the copy with the original, or with other copies. But, in a diſtant and inacceſſible country, how eaſily may fatigue or liſtleſſneſs perſuade the artiſt to content himſelf with a rough and imperfect ſketch, when he is not likely to be reproached for his careleſſneſs. Then behold another powerful cauſe of miſrepreſentation: for who can bear his mind ſo even and compoſed that ſtrange and unexpected appearances and cuſtoms ſhall raiſe neither admiration nor diſguſt? Who can reſtrain his buſy imagination from altering, in any ſhape, the pure and natural picture formed upon his eye? This praiſe, of all modern travellers, belongs almoſt excluſively to Niebuhr. That cold and ſedate geographer ſucceeded perfectly in ſubduing this intruſive faculty; he alone could always keep his eye open, and his attention alive. Reſolute and courageous, prudent and full of addreſs as he was, he is never the hero of his own tale; his conduct ſeems always to ariſe from circumſtances, and every reader thinks he could have done as well; he never ſurveys himſelf but as another man would ſurvey him. Thus modeſt and diſpaſſionate, he impoſed not on himſelf, nor ſuffered others to impoſe upon him. Always zealous to diſcharge his commiſſion faithfully, and bearing up againſt fatigue, he brought back a more valuable ſtock of information than could reaſonably have been expected from the whole ſociety of which he was the only ſurvivor. He ſcarce enters a town without giving a plan of it, ſees an inſcription without copying it, and how much his maps have added to geographical knowledge need not now be told. Mr. Bruce and this accurate and veracious traveller ſometimes traverſe the ſame ground; and there cannot be a more agreeable taſk than to compare them. Of books relating to Abyſſinia itſelf, at leaſt of ſuch as contain any information that can gratify rational curioſity, the penury is well known. We have ſeveral written by the Jeſuits; but the philoſophy of mankind was a ſcience as yet unknown; and at no time likely to be foſtered by the care of a Jeſuit. Intent upon extending the influence of their order, and blinded by bigotry and ſuperſtition, their writings contain little but an account of their good or ill ſucceſs in impoſing the wretched and contemptible dogmas of their ſcholaſtic theology upon ignorant ſavages, or making them repeat ſounds

ſounds which *paſs all underſtanding*. The voyage of Jerome Lobo is juſtly degraded by Mr. Bruce to a rank much below that which it has held in this country; he ſcruples not to call him 'the greateſt liar among the Jeſuits.' Towards the end of the laſt century Leutholf, or Ludolph, had, by inceſſant labour and admirable ſagacity, extracted from the motley maſs of materials ſupplied by the ignorance and ſuperſtition of the miſſionaries, together with the aſſiſtance of a native Abyſſinian, of whom the reader will find a portrait, and a curious and entertaining account in Ludolf's ſecond volume, and ſome other helps, every thing that is worth the notice of a philoſophical inquirer. This work of grammar, hiſtory natural and civil, and geography, was without a rival at the time of its publication, and is mentioned by Mr. Bruce with due reſpect.

To many readers, both of Mr. Bruce's Travels and our abſtract, a few words on the nature and importance of ſuch intelligence as may be expected from thoſe travels, may afford ſome aſſiſtance in eſtimating their value. The ſcene of the narrative is laid principally in Africa, on the eaſtern confines of that quarter of the globe. Now there are few who are not appriſed of the ſcantineſs of our information concerning the interior parts, and indeed the whole of this broad tract of dry land, except the weſtern and northern margin, and the ſouthern point. And when the moderns plume themſelves upon that ſuperior knowledge of man and nature which they owe to the civiliſation of Germany, and the ancient Scandinavia, or countries north of the Baltic, the diſcovery of America, the ſeveral expeditions ſent from Peterſburgh to explore the vaſt regions ſubject to the Empreſs of Ruſſia, the Daniſh miſſion, and the late Britiſh navigators; they ſeem not ſufficiently to recollect how much the ignorance of all theſe regions was compenſated to the ancients by their more intimate acquaintance with Africa. We may venture to advance that, among the remains only of the monuments of ancient ſcience, more information is to be found than in all the numerous productions of modern preſſes concerning the country of which we are ſpeaking; and of this, much that occurs in Diodorus Siculus, and nearly every thing in Strabo, may be received as equally credible and authentic with the beſt modern narratives. If Great-Britain and Denmark now ſend out armaments and bodies of learned men to explore the other hemiſphere, the North Pacific Ocean, and both the deſert and cultivated provinces of Arabia, Egypt was not always cruſhed under the iron rod of her preſent rulers, or rather diſtracted and helpleſs under her preſent anarchy. When the face of Britain and Denmark preſented only thickets and bogs, Egypt was vigorous and enterpriſing, eſpecially under the Ptolomies. The Greeks

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at leaſt were active and adventurous; and why ſhould we ſuppoſe the other inhabitants to have loſt all that ſpirit and art which cultivated their fields, dug their canals, and reared their monuments at a time when the ſavage and unſettled Greeks diſputed with the beaſts the poſſeſſion of their dens? Diſcoveries made in the part of Africa viſited by Mr. Bruce, by the Cooks and Niehbuhrs of other ages, were faithfully recorded by Artemidorus and Agatharcides, and copied by the other Greek writers already mentioned; by Diodorus more ſervilely, and with a mixture of monſtrous and abſurd fables from impurer ſources; by Strabo, after a careful compariſon and ſevere ſcrutiny. Every reader, therefore, will readily join the philoſophical and learned profeſſor of Gottingen in wiſhing, 1. That the ancient and modern accounts of Africa were thoroughly examined, and judiciouſly compared together, and that a full and diſtinct extract was made from the whole; 2. That the ſtates of Europe would follow the example of Denmark in attempting to penetrate Africa from various quarters, as well from the eaſt as the weſt.

Of the latter deſideratum a private aſſociation in this country is endeavouring to fulfil part; the travels before us are calculated to fulfil another part; ſo that we may hope yet, before the end of the century, to ſee this great blank in our maps of the globe filled with the traces of rivers and the ſhadows of mountains; ſome of it perhaps with the names of populous cities, and nations no longer barbarous.

In the title-page of the preſent work we have the engraving of a medal, repreſenting on one ſide the diſcoverer, on the other the detected head of the divinity of the Nile, from which Apollo lifts the veil, and looks towards the traveller; the reading is,

—— Nec contigit ulli
Hoc vidiſſe caput. ——

Mr. Bruce, perhaps, rather too often breaks out, like another wandering hero,

Sum pius Æneas famâ ſuper æthera notus.

It is always more prudent in an author to leave others to compliment him upon his achievements than to compliment himſelf. Admiration is a kind of commentary which every reader can ſupply at pleaſure. We are glad to ſee that the work is dedicated to the king. But why did the author encumber himſelf with the difficulty of ſo long a dedication? In this we fear he has failed with moſt of his brother dedicators; his meaning may generally be conjectured in ſpite of the unhappy labour of his ill-

conſtructed

conſtructed ſentences: but we would not undertake always to reconcile the ſenſe which he ſeems to mean to expreſs, with his expreſſions; for inſtance: 'It [your majeſty's reign] was a 'golden age, which united humanity and ſcience, exempted 'men of liberal minds and education, employed in the *nobleſt of* 'all occupations, that of exploring the diſtant parts of the globe, 'from being any longer degraded, and rated as little better than 'the buccaneer or the pirate, becauſe'—*mark the reaſon*—'be-'cauſe they had, till then, in manners been nearly ſimilar.' We do not underſtand how thoſe, whoſe manners are nearly ſimilar to the buccaneer and pirate, are degraded by being ranked as buccaneers and pirates. How are buccaneers and pirates known but by their manners? How can he who has ſuch manners be ſaid to have a liberal mind? But we have no inclination to carp; let the dedication paſs: where, if not in a dedication, may nonſenſe hope to find an aſylum?

The introduction diſplays the difficulty of the author's attempt; 'even conquerors at the head of immenſe armies, who 'had firſt diſcovered and then ſubdued great part of the world, 'were forced to lower their tone here, and dared ſcarcely to 'extend their advances towards this diſcovery beyond the limits 'of bare wiſhes.' We well know how neceſſary enthuſiaſm is to the achievement of any great undertaking; but in the expreſſions of Mr. Bruce's enthuſiaſm there is ſomething rather too ludicrous; as in thoſe paſſages where he talks of 'parties 'formed againſt his work,' of the influence of cabals, and the 'virulent ſtrokes of malice, envy, and ignorance, of perſons 'more wicked than weak,' who affected to diſbelieve that he he had ever performed theſe travels, there is more foreneſs than a man confident of a good cauſe need feel or ſhew. Page 3 he ſays, 'if I had ſtill any motive to defer ſubmitting theſe obſer-'vations to their judgment, it could only be that I might em-'ploy that interval in poliſhing and making them more worthy 'of their peruſal;' yet, p. 64-65, he tells us of other motives, ſickneſs, law-ſuits, and a ſtill heavier private affliction that occupied his attention, and probably at times left him little power or inclination to poliſh and arrange his materials: indeed, he has ſomething p. 65 which ſeems ſcarce conſiſtent with the long labour before mentioned: 'No great time has paſſed ſince the 'work was in hand. The materials collected upon the ſpot 'were very full, and ſeldom deferred to be ſet down beyond the 'day wherein the events deſcribed happened; but oftener, when 'ſpeeches and arguments were to be mentioned, they were noted 'the inſtant afterwards; for, contrary to what I believe is often 'the caſe, I can aſſure the reader theſe ſpeeches and converſations 'are abſolutely real, and not the fabrication of after-hours.' We

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do not ſee the great neceſſity for all this labour in poliſhing the journal, even including the hiſtory of Abyſſinia. Niebuhr, whoſe travels and deſcription of Arabia, as to the labour of publication, &c. exceed theſe volumes of Mr. Bruce beyond all eſtimation, on account of the number of plates and multitude of oriental words, interſperſed through his text, took a time much ſhort of ſixteen years, though in the meanwhile he publiſhed the Obſervations of Forſkal.

Mr. Bruce was firſt animated to this arduous undertaking by the inſpiring voice of the late Lord Chatham. After tedious negociations with miniſters, he was perſuaded by Lord Halifax to accept the conſulſhip at Algiers, where he embraced the opportunities offered to him of learning Arabic and Greek, ſo as to ſpeak it, together with medicine and ſurgery. He gives us a ſucceinct narrative of ſeveral excurſions into the country of this part of Africa, frequently animadverting upon Dr. Shaw, in whoſe footſteps he often treads; being oftener, however, carried by that ſpirit of adventure, for which he ſeems diſtinguiſhed above travellers, beyond the track of Shaw. And ſuch was our traveller's diligence in theſe expeditions that he believes there is not a fragment of good taſte in architecture in this part of Africa of which he has not brought drawings to Britain. Unfortunately every one of theſe is withheld from the public; for moſt, we are referred to the king's collection; a few remain with himſelf. He might ſurely have given us one ſample at leaſt of his talents for drawing, and judgment in ancient architecture, and not have left us with this impreſſion after reading his introduction; to wiſh moſt heartily to exchange nearly every thing that he has communicated for a particle of what he has kept to himſelf. The idea of a camera obſcura, in which, as in a ſummer-houſe, the draughtſman might ſit unſeen and perform his drawing, has great merit, and the remarks, p. 9, 10, on its advantages, ſeem judicious. The anecdote concerning the tribe of lion-eaters, and the ſtrictures on the univerſity of Oxford, ſtand forward and claim notice. There is ſomething whimſical in the exactneſs with which the age and ſex of the lions, on which our traveller feaſted, are reported. Should the reader ſmile at the paſſage, his ſmile, if he ſympathiſes with us, will not be a tribute to the author's powers of raillery. Let him, however, make the experiment:

'Before Dr. Shaw's travels firſt acquired the celebrity they have maintained ever ſince, there was a circumſtance that very nearly ruined their credit. He had ventured to ſay in converſation that theſe Wellid Sidi Boogannim were eaters of lions; and this was conſidered at Oxford, the univerſity where he had ſtudied, as a traveller's licence on the part of the doctor. They took it as a ſubverſion of the

the natural order of things that a man ſhould eat a lion, when it had long paſſed as almoſt the peculiar province of the lion to eat man. The doctor flinched under the ſagacity and ſeverity of this criticiſm; he could not deny that the Welled Sidi Boogannim did eat lions, as he had repeatedly ſaid; but he had not yet publiſhed his travels, and therefore left it out of his narrative, and only hinted at it after in his appendix.

'With all ſubmiſſion to that learned univerſity, I will not diſpute the lion's title to eating men; but, ſince it is not founded upon patent, no conſideration will make me ſtifle the merit of Welled Sidi Boogannim, who have turned the chace upon the enemy. It is an hiſtorical fact; and I will not ſuffer the public to be miſled by a miſrepreſentation of it; on the contrary, I do aver, in the face of theſe fantaſtic prejudices, that I have ate the fleſh of lions; that is, part of three lions, in the tents of Welled Sidi Boogannim. The firſt was a he lion, lean, tough, ſmelling violently of muſk, and had the taſte which, I imagine, old horſe-fleſh would have. The ſecond was a lioneſs, which they ſaid had that year been barren. She had a conſiderable quantity of fat within her; and, had it not been for the muſky ſmell that the fleſh had, though in a leſſer degree than the former, and for our fooliſh prejudices againſt it, the meat, when broiled, would not have been very bad. The third was a lion's whelp, ſix or ſeven months old; it taſted, upon the whole, the worſt of the three. I confeſs I have no deſire of being again ſerved with ſuch a morſel; but the Arabs, a brutiſh and ignorant folk, will, I fear, notwithſtanding the diſbelief of the univerſity of Oxford, continue to eat lions as long as they exiſt.'

At Jibbel Aurez he meets with a tribe, who, if not fair like the Engliſh, 'were of a ſhade lighter than that of the inhabitants of any country to the ſouthward of Britain; their hair was red, and their eyes blue.' Whether the very ingenious conjecture that they may be the remnant of an army of Vandals, whom Procopius mentions as having been defeated here, be right or not, the fact is important, and corroborates other proofs of this negative propoſition in the natural hiſtory of the human race, *that colour is not owing to climate.*

All intelligence relating to the interior parts of Africa being valuable, we muſt not omit the circumſtance of his meeting with a caravan of pilgrims from Fez and Sus in Morocco, traverſing Africa in their way to Mecca, almoſt from corner to corner, viz. from the Weſtern Ocean to the weſtern banks of the Red Sea or the kingdom of Sennaar. It conſiſted of about 3000 men, and from 12,000 to 14,000 camels, part loaded with merchandiſe, part with ſkins of water, flour, and other kinds of food, for the maintenance of the Hadjees or pilgrims. 'They were a ſcurvy, diſorderly, unarmed pack; and when my horſemen, though but fifteen in number, came up with them, in the grey of the morning, they ſhewed great

ſigns

'signs of trepidation, and were already flying in confusion. 'When informed who they were, their fears ceased, and, after 'the usual manner of cowards, they became extremely info-'lent.' The poor pilgrims, however, in traversing those dreary deserts, had cause enough of alarm, for they were afterwards plundered by the Welled Ali, a powerful tribe of Arabs that occupy the whole country between Ptolometa and Alexandria; and most of them perished for want of water.

At Ptolometa our traveller embarks on board a small Greek junk, belonging to a little island near Crete. Contrary winds drove him back to the westward, and he was shipwrecked near Bongazi, where he lost 'a sextant, a parallactic instrument, a 'time-piece, a reflecting telescope, an achromatic one, a copy 'of M. de la Baillie's Ephemerides for 1775, much to be re-'gretted, as being full of marginal notes; a small camera ob-'scura, some guns, pistols, a blunderbuss, and several other 'articles.'

From this disastrous situation the author gets, after touching at some intermediate places, to Sidon, and makes excursions in Syria as far as Palmyra. But from a general rule, not to interfere with the labours of others, and from a particular respect to Mr. Wood, he forbears to publish any thing of this interesting place, though he took six views, which, with views of Baalbee, 'are now in the king's collection.' At Sidon he receives news that his losses are soon to be repaired by two telescopes, one reflector by Short, and one achromatic by Dollond. By the representations of Buffon and Guys, Louis XV. was moved to send him a quadrant to Alexandria, where he found it and the other instruments.

After this prelude to a more serious expedition, Mr. Bruce mentions what we have already quoted of circumstances that have retarded this publication, lays down the distribution of his work, and then concludes by a passage conspicuous for its good sense, and very material to satisfy the reader concerning some doubts that might arise in his mind, as well as to acquaint him with that system of conduct which the author proposed to follow in Abyssinia. For this reason, and to counterbalance whatever disapprobation a most impartial and attentive consideration has hitherto obliged us to express, we shall quote it, though it be of considerable length:

'In overlooking the work I have found one circumstance, and I think no more, which is not sufficiently clear, and may create a momentary doubt in the reader's mind, although to those who have been sufficiently attentive to the narrative, I can scarce think it will do this. The difficulty is, how did you procure funds to support yourself and ten men so long, and so easily, as to enable you to

undervalue the uſeful character of a phyſician, and ſeek neither to draw money nor protection from it? And how came it that, contrary to the uſage of other travellers, at Gondar you maintained a character of independence and equality, eſpecially at court; inſtead of crouching, living out of ſight as much as poſſible, in continual fear of prieſts, under the patronage, or rather as ſervant to ſome men of power.

'To this ſenſible and well-founded doubt I anſwer with great pleaſure and readineſs, as I would do to all others of the ſame kind, if I could poſſibly divine them. It is not at all extraordinary that a ſtranger like me, and a parcel of vagabonds like thoſe that were with me, ſhould get themſelves maintained, and find at Gondar a precarious livelihood for a limited time. A mind ever ſo little poliſhed and inſtructed has infinite ſuperiority over barbarians; and it is in circumſtances like theſe that a man ſees the great advantages of education. All the Greeks in Gondar were originally criminals and vagabonds; they neither had, nor pretended to any profeſſion, except Petros the king's chamberlain, who had been a ſhoemaker at Rhodes, which profeſſion at his arrival he carefully concealed. Yet theſe were not only maintained, but by degrees, and without pretending to be phyſicians, obtained property, commands, and places.

'Hoſpitality is the virtue of barbarians, who are hoſpitable in the ratio that they are barbarous; and, for obvious reaſons, this virtue ſubſides among poliſhed nations in the ſame proportion. If, on my arrival in Abyſſinia, I aſſumed a ſpirit of independence, it was from policy and reflection. I had often thought that the misfortunes which had befallen other travellers in Abyſſinia aroſe from the baſe eſtimation the people in general entertained of their rank, and the value of their perſons. From this idea I reſolved to adopt a contrary behaviour. I was going to a court where there was a *king of kings*, whoſe throne was ſurrounded by a number of high-minded, proud, hereditary, punctilious nobility. It was impoſſible, therefore, too much lowlineſs and humility could pleaſe there.

'Mr. Murray, the ambaſſador at Conſtantinople, in the firman obtained from the Grand Signior, had qualified me with the diſtinction of Bey-Adzé, which means, not an Engliſh nobleman (a peer), but a noble Engliſhman; and he had added likewiſe, that I was a ſervant of the King of Great-Britain. All the letters of recommendation, very many and powerful, from Cairo and Jidda, had conſtantly echoed this to every part to which they were addreſſed. They announced that I was not a man, ſuch as ordinarily came to them, to live upon their charity, but had ample means of my own; and each profeſſed himſelf guarantee of that fact, and that they themſelves, on all occaſions, were ready to provide for me, by anſwering my demands.

'The only requeſt of theſe letters was ſafety and protection to my perſon. It was mentioned that I was a phyſician, to introduce a conciliatory circumſtance, that I was above practiſing for gain. That all I did was from the fear of God, from charity, and the love of mankind. I was a phyſician in the city, a ſoldier in the field, a courtier every where, demeaning myſelf, as conſcious that I was not unworthy

of

of being a companion to the firſt of their nobility, and the king's ſtranger and gueſt; which is there a character, as it was with eaſtern nations of old, to which a certain ſort of conſideration is due. It was in vain to compare myſelf with them in any kind of learning, as they have none; muſic they have as little; in eating and drinking they were indeed infinitely my ſuperiors; but in one accompliſhment that came naturally into compariſon, which was horſemanſhip, I ſtudiouſly eſtabliſhed my ſuperiority.

'My long reſidence among the Arabs had given me more than ordinary facility in managing the horſe; I had brought my own ſaddle and bridle with me, and, as the reader will find, bought my horſe of the Baharnagaſh in the firſt days of my journey; ſuch a one as was neceſſary to carry me; and him I trained carefully, and ſtudied from the beginning. The Abyſſinians, as the reader will hereafter ſee, are the worſt horſemen in the world. Their horſes are bad, not equal to our Welſh or our Scotch galloways. Their furniture is worſe. They know not the uſe of fire-arms on horſeback; they had never ſeen a double-barrelled gun, nor did they know that its effect was limited to two diſcharges, but that it might have been fired on to infinity. All this gave me an evident ſuperiority.

'To this I may add, that, being in the prime of life, of no ungracious figure, having an accidental knack, which is not a trifle, of putting on the dreſs, and ſpeaking the language eaſily and gracefully, I cultivated with the utmoſt aſſiduity the friendſhip of the fair ſex, by the moſt modeſt, reſpectful diſtant attendance and obſequiouſneſs in public, abating juſt as much of that in private as ſuited their humour and inclinations. I ſoon acquired a great ſupport from theſe at court; jealouſy is not a paſſion of the Abyſſinians, who are in the contrary extreme, even to indifference.

'Beſides the money I had with me, I had a credit of 400*l.* upon Youſef Cabil, governor of Jidda. I had another upon a Turkiſh merchant there. I had ſtrong and general recommendations, if I ſhould want ſupplies, upon Metical Aga, firſt miniſter to the ſherriffe of Mecca. This, well managed, was enough; but when I met my countrymen, the captains of the Engliſh ſhips from India, they added additional ſtrength to my finances; they would have poured gold upon me to facilitate a journey they ſo much deſired upon ſeveral accounts. Captain Thornhill of the Bengal Merchant, and Captain Thomas Price of the Lion, took the conduct of my money affairs under their direction. Their Saraf, or broker, had in his hands all the commerce that produced the revenues of Abyſſinia, together with great part of the correſpondence of the Eaſt; and, by a lucky accident for me, Captain Price ſtaid all winter with the Lion at Jidda; nay, ſo kind and anxious was he as to ſend over a ſervant from Jidda on purpoſe, upon a report having been raiſed that I was ſlain by the uſurper Socinios, though it was only one of my ſervants, and the ſervant of Metical Aga, who were murdered by that monſter, as is ſaid, with his own hand. Twice he ſent over ſilver to me when I had plenty of gold, and wanted that metal only to apply it in furniture and workmanſhip. I do not pretend to ſay but ſometimes theſe ſupplies failed me, often by my negligence in not applying

in proper time, ſometimes by the abſence of merchants, who were all Mahometans, conſtantly engaged in buſineſs and in journies, and more eſpecially on the king's retiring to Tigré, after the battle of Limjour, when I was abandoned during the uſurpation of the unworthy Socinios. It was then I had recourſe to Petros and the Greeks; but more for their convenience than my own, and very ſeldom from neceſſity. This opulence enabled me to treat upon equal footing, to do favours as well as to receive them.

'Every mountebank-trick was a great accompliſhment there; ſuch as making ſquibs, crackers, and rockets. There was no ſtation in the country to which, by theſe accompliſhments, I might not have pretended, had I been mad enough to have ever directed my thoughts that way; and I am certain that in vain I might have ſolicited leave to return, had not a melancholy deſpondency, the *amor patriæ*, ſeized me, and my health ſo far declined as apparently to threaten death; but I was not even then permitted to leave Abyſſinia till under a very ſolemn oath I promiſed to return.

'This manner of conducting myſelf had likewiſe its diſadvantages. The reader will ſee the times, without their being pointed out to him, in the courſe of the narrative. It had very near occaſioned me to be murdered at Maſuah; but it was the means of preſerving me at Gondar, by putting me above being inſulted or queſtioned by prieſts, the fatal rock upon which all other European travellers had ſplit: it would have occaſioned my death at Sennaar, had I not been ſo prudent as to diſguiſe and lay aſide the independent carriage in time. Why ſhould I not now ſpeak as I really think; or why be guilty of ingratitude which my heart diſclaims? I eſcaped by the providence and protection of heaven; and ſo little ſtore do I ſet upon the advantage of my own experience, that I am ſatisfied, were I to attempt the ſame journey again, it would not avail me a ſtraw, or hinder me from periſhing miſerably, as others have done, though perhaps a different way.'

By the foregoing obſervations we flatter ourſelves that we have not only ſatisfied the reader as to the general authenticity of the narrative, but prepared him, in other reſpects, either to follow our abridgment, or the author's more ample detail, with advantage. Of a work ſo ſingular in its principal ſubject, and which we fear will continue ſo for a long period, the public curioſity will require at our hands information more than uſually full. In the next number we ſhall proceed to indulge this curioſity. Meanwhile we hope it will appear, as much from the nature of our abſtract as from our proteſtations, that we do not rank among the private friends or enemies of this author; and certainly have no ſhare in thoſe plots of defamation to which he alludes. The only queſtion with us is, how far he has illuſtrated geography and natural ſcience, and added to our knowledge of mankind. A book of travels may indeed entertain, when it relates more to the perſon of the traveller than the countries

countries and people he visits; but this is a very inferior merit, and we should be sorry if we should be obliged to rest here the chief claim of these volumes to public approbation.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. VIII. *A Treatise on Gun-powder; a Treatise on Fire-arms; and a Treatise on the Service of Artillery in Time of War. Translated from the Italian of Alessandro Vittorio Papacino D'Antoni, Major-General in the Sardinian Army, and Chief Director of the Royal Military Academies of Artillery and Fortification at Turin. By Captain Thomson, of the Royal Regiment of Artillery.* 8vo. boards. 8s. Egerton. London, 1789.

TO the glory of England, while she has cultivated the arts of peace, almost beyond the example of any nation, she has likewise given to the world some of the most valuable productions on the destructive, indeed, but important and necessary science of war. It was the sublime and penetrating genius of Newton that explored the laws which govern the system of nature; and the celebrated Robins, actuated with the same spirit of philosophical inquiry, first established the theory of projectiles on any certain foundation; in which he has been followed with great abilities by Dr. Hutton, the present professor of the royal academy at Woolwich. Amongst the foreigners who have cultivated this art, the most conspicuous is M. D'Antoni, the author of the treatise now before us. The works of this eminent Italian consist of thirteen volumes in octavo, of which we shall give a short account. The first of his productions was on the examination of powder. The author, considering fire as the basis of all experiments upon gunpowder, sets out with giving a definition of that element; and, after investigating its effects on bodies, and pointing out the several modifications to which it is liable, he proceeds to an analysis of sulphur, charcoal, and saltpetre; the properties of which he considers, both individually and collectively, as in the manufacture of gun-powder, of which he describes the various sorts. He next deduces a theory of the inflammation of powder, with a number of practical inferences, which, in general, coincide with the results of experiments made in this country. In the second part, after expatiating upon the difficulty of measuring the force of ignited gun-powder, and thence inferring the impossibility of determining it with precision in military operations, he investigates the initial velocity of projectiles, with the law of their impulsion, and concludes his inquiry with experiments on the resistance of the air.

In the ſecond treatiſe, relative to fire-arms, the author applies to practice the principles which he had eſtabliſhed in the former. He begins with obſervations on the reſiſtance of fire-arms; examining the hardneſs and tenacity of the metals employed in their conſtruction, and giving at the ſame time the method of refining and fuſing them, with remarks on the ſeveral proportions in which they are to be combined. Making afterwards ſome obſervations on the windage, figure, length, and caſting, of braſs guns and mortars, he points out the inconveniences ariſing from 'the running at the vent,' and concludes with the ſeveral methods of proving and examining new guns. The ſecond part of the treatiſe relates to projectiles. Here he explains the duty of an artillery-officer, both on battery and in the field, as far as regards the initial velocity of ſhot, the path of the ſhot's flight, and its effects upon works; calculating the number of men that may be killed or wounded in action, both by round and caſe-ſhot, fired from guns of different calibres, at various poſitions of the enemy. He draws a compariſon between the effects of the howitzers and field-pieces, and finiſhes with a chapter on ſhells projected from mortars.

The author, proceeding in the natural order of inveſtigation, treats, in the third work, of the ſervice of artillery in time of war, and begins with the attack of places. He firſt developes the diſpoſitions for laying ſiege to a fortified town, and determines the proportion of guns and ſtores for the attack of fortreſſes. He next treats of the precautions neceſſary to be taken for inſuring the ſafety of the convoys; the ſituation of the park; the conſtruction of the firſt, ſecond, and third batteries; the attack of the countermines, and the ſurrender of the place; diſtinguiſhing the ſeveral kinds of ſieges, and giving directions for diſmantling and blowing up the works of a reduced fortreſs. The ſecond part comprehends the whole ſcience of defence; enlarging particularly on the ſubject of mining, and delivering rules for the defence of a place conſtructed on a ſyſtem of demolition. The third part treats of the field-ſervice of artillery. The author, in order to give artillery-officers an adequate idea of this eſſential branch of their profeſſion, takes a view of the formation of an army, and the ſyſtem of tactics; laying down, at the ſame time, diſpoſitions for the march and encampments of armies, and for parking the artillery. He afterwards delineates the method of diſpoſing the artillery in the day of action; and explains its uſe in the attack and defence of field-works, with the principles of their conſtruction, either for covering a country or entrenching an army; and concludes with the duties to be performed in cantonments and winter quarters.

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The three treatiſes above mentioned form the ſubject of the preſent work, which contains a complete ſyſtem of artillery and engineering. In this art, as in every other province of human inquiry, there will always be a diverſity of opinions; and future experiments alone can determine with reſpect to their comparative juſtneſs. The principles of M. D'Antoni ſometimes militate againſt the concluſions of the ingenious and learned Dr. Hutton: but we would not, on that account, conſider the tranſlation of the Italian work as ſuperfluous; ſince the points on which thoſe eminent men agree may be regarded as fixed axioms, and thoſe in which they differ may prove the means of exciting farther inveſtigation. Dr. Hutton, for inſtance, affirms that no ſtreſs whatever is to be laid on the wadding of guns, with reſpect to increaſing the force of the charge. D'Antoni, however, aſſerts the contrary; and in this he is ſupported by Colonel Thomſon, who has favoured the world with ſeveral ingenious papers on gunnery. We ſhall lay before our readers a few obſervations on this ſubject, taken from the tranſlator's preface:

'There are ſome points in which M. D'Antoni differs widely from the commonly received opinions: in his proportion of ordnance and ſtores for the attack and defence of places, he omits howitzers and includes a large proportion of mortars. It is doubtleſs an object highly worthy the attention of profeſſional men to inveſtigate, how far mortars can, in moſt caſes, ſupply the place of howitzers. The abſurd idea of fixing them in their beds at a certain elevation, is at length, to the credit of the preſent day, in a fair way of being exploded: the adoption of Captain Lawſon's mode of elevation, which ſeems, at once to unite ſtrength and ſimplicity, the two leading features in military mechanics, will go far toward the completion of this object. The field-howitzer, notwithſtanding the apparent fairneſs of M. D'Antoni's compariſon, will ſtill maintain its ground; it is true, as he aſſerts, that the moral effects of howitzer-ſhells cannot be calculated; yet, ſuch is the conſtitution of human nature, that though we cannot aſcertain to mathematical preciſion the force of terror, we are nevertheleſs certain that it works wonderful effects on the moſt ſtupid as well as on the moſt enlightened minds. His general condemnation of light ſhort guns is deduced from the faireſt of all principles: the only true criterion to judge of the efficacy of field artillery, is their relative effects when compared with muſquets; whenever the fire of artillery can only produce an effect a little greater than a few miles of muſqueteers can, no man who conſiders impartially the advantages and diſadvantages attending the uſe of each fire-arm will heſitate to declare that the artillery ſhould be diſuſed. In ſaying this there is no reaſon to dread that artillery will loſe any of its credit; profeſſional men will ever know how to eſtimate its conſequence; it is only by bringing forward guns that cannot produce the effect expected from them, that the ſervice of artillery can be brought into diſrepute.'

It must be observed that M. D'Antoni has adapted his directions for the conduct of officers to the meridian of his own country. A comparison between the English and Sardinian artillery will shew that there are many points in which the former is superior; but this can detract nothing from the justness of the author's general principles, nor in any degree invalidate his observations. In one respect, the difference of the two services is remarkable. Amongst us, the engineers are accustomed to construct the batteries, the artillery-officer having little more to do than to prepare the stores and fight the guns. In the Sardinian, and in most other services on the continent, the artillery officer plans the batteries in conjunction with the engineer, and constructs them himself.

The translator informs us that he had, at one time, an intention of subjoining, by way of note, remarks on the several conclusions drawn by the author in the course of this work; and comparing them with the received opinions of the English and French artillerists; but he afterwards relinquished the idea, from the consideration that an ample discussion of those several points would not only have greatly enlarged the work, but might have involved him in tedious and fruitless controversies. We cannot but wish that so useful a design had been carried into execution by a person so well qualified for the undertaking as the present translator. He has, however, performed an essential service to British artillerists and engineers, by the translation of M. D'Antoni's elaborate work; and we must add, that he has not only given the sense of his author with fidelity and accuracy, but with perspicuity and conciseness.

ART. IX. *A Letter to a Nobleman; containing Considerations on the Laws relative to Dissenters, and on the intended Application to Parliament for the Repeal of the Corporation and Test Acts. By a Layman.* 8vo. 3s. Cadell. London, 1790.

IT has been observed again and again, and it has been particularly insisted on by Mr. Hume, that deism, and all religions that imply an unity of faith and one object of worship, are in their natures intolerant; that polytheism, on the contrary, with a diversity of gods, admits a diversity of religious ceremonies and opinions. The progress of knowledge, which is accompanied by progressive moderation and doubt, appears to have had a similar effect on the minds of men, with regard to religious toleration, to that of polytheism, which is, no doubt, founded on ignorance. In the present enlightened age men speculate freely on the nature and ways of fate and providence; and great

great indulgence is ſhewn to that variety of opinions which are entertained on ſubjects ſo abſtruſe and hard to be comprehended. In ſuch times and circumſtances it is not to be wondered that the new legiſlature of France, one of the moſt refined nations in the world, ſhould ſhew the moſt perfect example that has been yet exhibited, of toleration and forbearance in matters of religion.

The political advantages that muſt accrue to France from ſuch enlarged views and liberal conduct are foreſeen by the author of this treatiſe in favour of a repeal of the corporation and teſt acts in England. 'My firm and conſcientious opinion,' ſays he, 'is for a repeal; and ſure I am that, unleſs ſomething 'material ſhall be done by the wiſdom of the legiſlature to mi-'tigate the intolerance of our laws, a neighbouring nation, 'whoſe government was the conſtant ſubject of our reproba-'tion and abhorrence, will be ſoon found the trueſt aſylum for 'religious liberty.' The writer of the letter proceeds to vindicate, recommend, and aſſert religious toleration in general, and the exerciſe of juſtice to the proteſtant diſſenters in particular, from topics drawn from hiſtory, philoſophy, political prudence, and from the pure ſource of the Chriſtian religion, uncontaminated by human paſſion and the artifices of prieſtcraft. He is not only acquainted with the hiſtory and preſent ſtate of modern Europe, and particularly that of England, but is a conſiderable proficient in general knowledge. He writes in an eaſy and perſpicuous ſtyle, as might be expected from one ſo thoroughly maſter of his ſubject; and in that diſpaſſionate and liberal manner which becomes an advocate for toleration in matters of religious opinion. The political ſentiments of this writer are highly independent, and favourable to the rights of human nature.

ART. X. *Bell's New Pantheon, or Hiſtorical Dictionary of the Gods, Demi-gods, Heroes, and fabulous Perſonages of Antiquity; alſo of the Images and Idols adored in the Pagan World; together with their Temples, Prieſts, Altars, Oracles, Faſts, Feſtivals, Games, &c. as well as Deſcriptions of their Figures, Repreſentations, and Symbols, collected from Statues, Pictures, Coins, and other Remains of the Ancients. The whole deſigned to facilitate the Study of Mythology, Hiſtory, Poetry, Painting, Statuary, Medals, &c. and compiled from the beſt Authorities. Richly embelliſhed with characteriſtic Prints.* 4to. 2 vols. 1l. 11s. 6d. boards. Bell. London, 1790.

THE heathen mythology, hitherto little regarded but by claſſical ſcholars, will no doubt, by the pleaſing form in which it is here exhibited, become much more generally known.

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The plan of a dictionary is alſo well calculated to convey this ſpecies of knowledge. An account of fabulous perſonages, to illuſtrate a paſſage in poetry, or a ſcene in painting, derives merit from its brevity, and from the eaſe with which it can be referred to. The matter of theſe volumes ſeems to be well ſelected, and arranged in a judicious manner; and the ſtyle has as much claim to elegance as can be expected in a dictionary of heathen deities. That our readers may form a judgment of it themſelves, we ſhall preſent them with the following account of the elyſium of the ancients:

'EYSIUM, or elyſian fields; the happy abodes of the juſt and good, and the contraſt of Tartarus, the priſon of the wicked. It were endleſs to give all the variety of deſcriptions which this ſubject has afforded to ancient and modern writers. Let us figure to ourſelves ſcenes of enchantment abounding with every thing conducive to happineſs; an eternal ſpring of verdure and flowers, with fountains and ſtreams gliding gently along; a ſky always ſerene, and fanned with fragrant breezes; an univerſal harmony and uninterrupted joy; a perpetual ſpring, with other ſuns, and other ſtars. Lucian has given a romantic deſcription of theſe happy fields:

'We were conducted,' ſays he, 'to the city of the iſland of the bleſſed, to aſſiſt at their feaſts: at our entrance we were raviſhed to behold a city of gold encompaſſed by walls of emerald, whilſt its pavement was inlaid with ebony and ivory. The temples were of rubies and diamonds, having large altars raiſed upon one ſingle precious ſtone, on which hecatombs were ſeen to ſmoke. Its ſeven gates were all of cinnamon, ſurrounded by a moat of ſweet-ſcented luſtral water, an hundred yards broad, and as deep as was neceſſary to bathe at one's eaſe. The public baths are of admirable artifice, which are heated by nothing but faggots of cinnamon. The edifice itſelf is of cryſtal, and the baſons or lavacra large veſſels of porcelaine, filled with dew. The bleſſed are incorporeal and impalpable; yet they eat and drink, and perform the other natural functions; they never grow old, but enjoy perpetual youth and vigour. Of all the ſeaſons they know none but the ſpring, and feel no other wind but the zephyrs. The earth is covered with flowers and fruits all the year round, which are gathered every month. There are three hundred and ſixty-five fountains of freſh water, as many of honey, and four hundred, but ſmaller than the others, of ſweet unguents, with ſeveral rivers of milk and wine. They keep their feaſts without the city in the elyſian fields, under the ſhade of a wood which ſurrounds it, ſitting upon beds of flowers, and have their refections brought by the winds. They are at no pains to make garlands, for the little birds which hop round them ſinging, ſcatter flowers upon them, cropt from the neighbouring meadows. They never ceaſe ſinging during the banquet, and rehearſing the moſt pleaſing verſes. Their dances are performed by boys and virgins, and their muſicians are Eunomus, Arion, Anacreon, and Steſichorus. When they have finiſhed their ſongs, a ſecond choir of muſicians appear, compoſed of

of ſwans and nightingales, which, with the zephyrs, make up a delightful concert. But what contributes moſt to the felicity of the bleſſed is, that there are two ſprings, the one of laughter, and the other of joy, of which each perſon drinking before he ſits down, is filled with hilarity for the reſt of the day.'

We have remarked that the typography of Mr. Bell is generally uncommonly elegant; nor will the public expectation be diſappointed in theſe volumes, the value of which is doubly enhanced by beautiful engravings, which ſerve not only to embelliſh the work, but to illuſtrate the ſubject of which it treats.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. XI. *Journal Hiſtorique du Voyage de M. de Leſſeps, &c.*

ART. XI. *Hiſtorical Account of a Journey from Kamtſchatka to France, by M. de Leſſeps, ſent out by the King as Interpreter in the Expedition of the Count de la Peroufe.* 8vo. 2 vols. Paris, 1790.

GRAND enterpriſes, undertaken for the purpoſe of making diſcoveries and promoting the cauſe of ſcience, generally arouſe the rivalſhip of ſurrounding nations, and one ſovereign is ſometimes incited, by the example of another, to purſue meaſures that are equally beneficial to mankind and honourable to himſelf. The voyages of our immortal navigator, whoſe unfortunate and untimely end will be lamented while the glory of his name ſurvives, ſeem to have diffuſed abroad a ſpirit for ſetting on foot expeditions of the like kind; and both France and Spain have turned their attention to the ſame objects, particularly the former, which in 1785 fitted out two frigates, well equipped, under the command of the Count de la Perouſe and M. de Langle, both able officers, in order to make reſearches reſpecting geography, aſtronomy, natural hiſtory, and other branches of knowledge. Two aſtronomers, M. Dagelet, of the Academy of Sciences, and M. Menge, junior, profeſſor at the Military School, embarked in theſe veſſels; but as the latter could not endure the nauſea of a ſea voyage, he was obliged to return ſome time after. Count de la Perouſe was attended alſo by the Chevalier de Lamanon and M. Monge, junior, canon of Sainte Genevieve, two gentlemen well acquainted with experimental philoſophy, by three naturaliſts, M. Martiniere, Father Recours, a cordelier, and M. du Freſne; by M. Moperon, an engineer, and by ſeveral painters and draughtſmen. Theſe learned men were preſented to the king on the 18th of June,

June, ample inſtructions were given them, and no expence was ſpared to provide them with ſuch inſtruments as they might have occaſion for. A medal was ſtruck to preſerve the remembrance of this enterpriſe, undertaken in the tenth year of the reign of Louis XVI.

Theſe veſſels, one of which was called La Bouſſole and the other L'Aſtrolabe, ſailed from Breſt on the 1ſt of Auguſt, 1785. The former had on board one hundred and thirteen men, and the officers were ſelected from the moſt reſolute and ſkilful in the French navy. Very ſanguine hopes were formed of the information that would be procured by this voyage; and Mr. Dagelet was particularly ordered to make obſervations on the tides, and on the pendulum, in order to aſcertain the variations of gravitation in ſeveral parts of the globe; on the difference it may have in the two hemiſpheres, and on the exact figure of the earth. For this purpoſe Mr. Dagelet carried with him the invariable pendulum of M. de la Condamine, which had been before uſed in America, Africa, and Lapland.

After making ſome obſervations at Teneriffe, M. de la Perouſe purſued his voyage, about the end of Auguſt, and proceeded thence to Brazil, the coaſt of Chili, the Eaſter and Sandwich iſles, California, &c. and arrived at China in the beginning of the year 1787. After this he proceeded to the Manillas, and the harbour of St. Peter and St. Paul in Kamtſchatka, where M. de Leſſeps quitted the veſſels in order to return to Europe.

In the month of June laſt year letters were received from theſe navigators, dated March 1788, at which time they were at Botany Bay, on the coaſt of New Holland; and it appears that M. de Langle, who commanded the Aſtrolabe, and who was one of the ableſt officers in the French ſervice, was killed at the iſle of Mohona, with thirteen of the crew, among whom were the Chevalier de Lamanon and Father Recours, a cordelier, both well verſed in natural hiſtory. This iſland lies in the Archipelago, called by Bougainville, Navigator's Iſles, in long. 208° and lat. 14° ſouth. After the death of M. de Langle, M. de Clonard took the command of the Aſtrolabe, and the two veſſels ſailed from Botany Bay about the middle of May 1788. Though above a year has now elapſed ſince that period, no accounts have been yet received of the future progreſs of the Count de la Perouſe; and there is too much reaſon to apprehend that ſome misfortune has befallen the veſſels, or that they are loſt. If this be the caſe, ſcience will undoubtedly ſuffer by the miſcarriage of an enterpriſe undertaken by munificence, ſupported by liberality, and entruſted to the management of men every way qualified, by their talents and experience,

to

to bring it to a happy concluſion. But no human prudence can guard againſt the dangers of the ocean, the conſpiring elements, or deſtructive rocks; and unforeſeen accidents often render the beſt concerted voyages abortive.

After quitting the veſſels, M. de Leſſeps departed from St. Peter and St. Paul on the 7th of October, 1787, accompanied by ſeveral Ruſſian gentlemen, four ſerjeants, and a like number of ſoldiers, and purſuing his route through Yakoutſk and Irkoutſk, near the lake Baikal, proceeded to Tobolſk, the capital of Siberia, from which he travelled to Peterſburgh, and thence to Paris, where he arrived on the 17th of October, 1788.

As M. de Leſſeps undertook this journey neither for pleaſure nor to make diſcoveries, the reader muſt not expect in it that information or entertainment which is generally ſought for in books of travels. He himſelf ſeems to have been ſenſible of this, for he very modeſtly gives it the title of a Journal; but he has made ſuch obſervations on the countries through which he paſſed, and the manners and cuſtoms of the inhabitants, as time and circumſtances would permit. That our readers may judge for themſelves we ſhall give a few extracts from the work.

'The people of Kamtſchatka,' ſays M. de Leſſeps, 'are of a mild and hoſpitable diſpoſition; they are neither thieves nor robbers; and they even poſſeſs ſo little cunning, that one may eaſily deceive them by taking advantage of their fondneſs for ſtrong liquors. They live together in the greateſt harmony; and it appears that they are the more induced to this on account of the ſmallneſs of their number. This union leads them to aſſiſt each other mutually in their labours; and this is no ſmall proof of their deſire to oblige, if we conſider their natural lazineſs, which is very great. An active life to them would be inſupportable; and the greateſt happineſs, in their opinion, next to that of getting drunk, is to have nothing to do, and to enjoy themſelves in indolence. This diſpoſition is ſo powerful amongſt theſe people, that it makes them neglect the means of providing the neceſſaries of life; whole families may ſometimes in winter be ſeen reduced to the extremity of want, becauſe they did not give themſelves the trouble, during the ſummer ſeaſon, to lay up a proper proviſion of fiſh, which is almoſt their only nouriſhment. If they thus forget what concerns their exiſtence, it may be readily concluded that they are equally careleſs with reſpect to cleanlineſs, which appears neither in their perſons nor their habitations; on the contrary, we may reproach them with being exceedingly dirty. Notwithſtanding this ſlovenlineſs, and other natural faults, we are obliged to regret that their number is ſo inconſiderable; for, from what I have ſeen, and what was confirmed to me by ſeveral people, if you wiſh to meet with

ſentiments

ſentiments of honour and humanity, you muſt ſearch for them among the real Kamtſchadales; they have not yet bartered their rude virtues for the poliſhed vices of the Europeans ſent thither to civiliſe them.'

Moſt travellers have obſerved that ſavage nations become profligate and degenerate in proportion to the intercourſe which they have with the Europeans. Mr. Vaillant, who lately returned from travelling into the interior parts of Africa, remarks the ſame thing when ſpeaking of the Hottentots, and, by contraſting the character of different tribes, ſhews the vaſt difference there is between thoſe who live under the Dutch government, and thoſe to whom its influence has never yet been extended. The following reflections of M. de Leſſeps ſtill tend to confirm this aſſertion:

'At Bolcheretſk I firſt began to perceive the effects of their influence. I ſaw there, in ſome meaſure, the traces of European manners ſtill remaining among the inhabitants, in their motley race, in their idiom, in the conformation of their features, as well as in their diſpoſition and manner of living, which do not always announce a great ſtock of virtue. This remarkable difference between them and the original inhabitants ariſes only from an introduction towards civiliſation; and the following are the reaſons upon which I found my opinion:

'Bolcheretſk was not long ago the capital of Kamtſchatka, eſpecially from the time that the governors thought proper to eſtabliſh their reſidence there. The chiefs and their attendants carried thither the European manners and cuſtoms: it is well known that theſe are generally changed when tranſmitted; and this change becomes more perceptible in proportion to the diſtance from their ſource to which they are diffuſed; but it is to be hoped that the Ruſſian government will, as much as is poſſible, entruſt its authority, and the execution of its orders, to officers only of approved merit, if I may judge from thoſe who are there at preſent; and if this precaution be taken, it is to be preſumed that theſe officers, in the places where they reſide, will give no examples but ſuch as diſplay the virtues, knowledge, and other eſtimable qualities of civiliſed people.'

The fair ſex, in all ages, have been fond of pleaſure; and this paſſion is confined to no country or climate. It appears under the ſcorching beams of the tropical ſun, and is not checked by the cold atmoſphere of the northern regions. Thoſe of Bolcheretſk, according to our author's account, are not deficient in this reſpect.

'With regard to the women of Bolcheretſk,' continues he, 'who came to our aſſemblies, and who, for the moſt part, were of a mixed breed, or born of Ruſſian parents, I obſerved that their

their faces in general were not disagreeable. I even saw some who might be accounted pretty; but the freshness of their complexions does not continue long; and it is doubtless their bringing forth children, or the severe labour to which they are subjected, that makes them thus wither almost in the flower of their age. They are of a cheerful disposition, and extremely lively, perhaps a little at the expence of decency; they seek of their own accord to amuse those among whom they are, by every expedient that mirth and joy can suggest; they are also fond of singing, and the sound of their voice is soft, and far from being displeasing; it is only to be wished that their music had not so great a resemblance to the climate, or that it approached nearer to ours. They speak both the Russian and Kamtschadale languages; but they all preserve the accent of the latter. I did not expect to see the Polish dances here, and still less country dances in the English taste. Who would believe that the ladies here had any idea of the minuet? Whether it was that my being at sea for twenty-six months had rendered me less difficult, or that the remembrance of former scenes, which this spectacle revived, had fascinated my eyes, I thought these dances executed with more precision and grace than I could have imagined. The dancers of whom I speak carry their vanity so far as to disdain the songs and dances of the Kamtschadales. In order to finish my observations upon these balls, I must say, that the women are not negligent in their dress; they ornament themselves with the most elegant articles which they possess, or consider as of the greatest value. These dresses of ceremony consist principally of silk; and, from what I have written on their commerce, they must cost very dear. I shall here add a remark which I had an opportunity of making both in these assemblies and in those of the Kamtschadales, at which I was afterwards present: It is that the greater part of the husbands, whether Russians or natives, do not appear to be jealous; they readily shut their eyes on the conduct of their wives, and are very indifferent on this point.'

We shall conclude our extracts from this work, the style of which we cannot call either elegant or correct, with an account of the manner in which the Kamtschadales hunt bears:

'They attack them various ways, and sometimes lay snares for them. Under a heavy trap, supported by a pretty high scaffold, they place a bait of some kind or other to attract the bear, which no sooner smells it than he approaches to devour it; by doing this the animal shakes the feeble supporter of the trap, which, falling upon his neck, punishes his voracity by crushing his head, and sometimes his whole body. In passing through the woods I have seen many of them caught in this kind

kind of trap, which remains ſuſpended until a bear is killed by it; and a year often expires before that happens. This manner of hunting bears, it may be ſaid, neither requires a great ſhare of courage, nor ſubjects the hunters to great fatigue; but there is another method employed in this country, for which both ſtrength and courage are neceſſary. Whether accompanied or alone, a Kamtſchadale ſets out in queſt of a bear, with no other arms but his fuſee, a kind of carabine, the but-end of which is very ſmall, a lance, and his knife. All his proviſions are confined to a packet, containing about a ſcore of dried fiſh; and with this ſlender proviſion he penetrates into the thickeſt woods, and ſearches ſuch places as are frequented by the animal. He generally poſts himſelf among ſome buſhes, or the reeds that grow on the borders of lakes and rivers, where he boldly waits with patience; if neceſſary he will remain thus on the watch for a whole week, until a bear makes his appearance, and as ſoon as he perceives him, he fixes in the earth a forked ſtick, in order to ſupport his muſquet. By the help of this ſtick he is enabled to hold his piece with more ſteadineſs, and to take a ſurer aim. Though he uſes only a ſmall bullet, he ſeldom fails to hit the animal, either in the head or the ſhoulders, which are the moſt ſenſible parts; but he muſt inſtantly reload, for if the bear does not fall on the firſt diſcharge, he ruſhes furiouſly on the hunter, before he has time to fire again. In ſuch a caſe he has recourſe to his lance, in order to defend himſelf from the animal; but his life will be in great danger if he does not mortally wound the bear; and it may be readily conceived that in theſe combats the hunter is not always the conqueror. This, however, does not prevent the inhabitants from expoſing themſelves in them almoſt every day, though they frequently ſee others periſh. They cannot ſet out upon a hunting excurſion of this kind without reflecting that they muſt either conquer or die; but the idea of this ſevere alternative neither intimidates nor checks them.'

We obſerve that an Engliſh tranſlation of this work is advertiſed to be publiſhed.

MONTHLY

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

For MAY 1790.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. 12. *Female Characters in Married Life; an Epigrammatic Satire. Humbly addreſſed to the Wife without a Fault.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Stalker. London, 1790.

THIS poem is, in many parts, much too coarſe for the polite circles, which is the more to be lamented becauſe it abounds in paſſages neither deficient in point, or deſtitute of force. As a ſpecimen, we have ſelected the following from the various characters of wives pourtrayed by this ingenious ſatiriſt:

'Little accompliſhments are dangerous things;
Genius too oft from brackiſh fountains ſprings.
Theſe only pleaſe which harmoniſe the mind,
Improved with ſkill and by true taſte refin'd.
The one to muſic broke, with thrilling note,
Rattles a tortur'd language in her throat;
Whilſt harſh guitars and jingling forte-pianos,
Mingling Scotch ballads with Italianos,
Like the winds whiſtling thro' monaſtic cells,
Ring thro' the houſe in diſcord's ſhrilleſt yells.
Repentance, thus too late, comes on too ſoon;
All the domeſtic joys put out of tune!
The genius, prone to painting, pictures draws
Of all her friends, and at one price applauſe.
Her jackall huſband, as in office bound,
Hangs in diſtortions all his friends around.

* * * * * * *

The ſcandal-bearer, who ſets off at view
The game by others ſtarted to purſue;
Who blows Fame's trumpet at the ſmalleſt end,
Which, ſpreading wide, does the loud blaſt diſtend;
From houſe to houſe with buſy pleaſure flies,
And ſtabs the bleeding victim as it dies.
What prowling tygreſs of the plains or woods,
What ſhark-tooth'd monſter of the ſeas or floods,
What hungry vulture of the tuneful groves,
Diſturber of their people's happy loves!
Can with this monſter of earth, ſea, and air,
In wanton, ſavage cruelty compare.
Ill-fated huſband! who, to bribe his reſt,
Muſt take the ugly monſter to his breaſt!'

There are inhabitants of a smoaky metropolis who will be wicked enough to apply this last character. There are many others drawn with equal justice; and we again lament that the coarseness of some should prevent our recommending the book to general use.

ART. 13. *Love in many Masks; as altered by J. P. Kemble from Mrs. Behn's Rover, and first acted at the Theatre-Royal in Drury-Lane, March 8th*, 1790. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Egerton. London, 1790.

This comedy, so ill-suited to the present improved state of the English theatre, seems to have been revived for the purpose of exhibiting that fascinating favourite of the town, Mrs. Jordan. With her assistance no doubt the piece may go off very well; but neither the structure of the fable, the great number of characters, nor the boldness with which many of them are drawn, are consistent with that correctness the town at present requires. But the greatest inconvenience to the spectator is the number of persons with which the stage teems at the same time. Horace is unwilling to admit four—the play before us frequently exhibits seven, and most of them masked, to increase the puzzle of the audience. This obliges the characters to be perpetually telling one another or themselves what *they* know very well, but what the audience could not otherwise discover; and requires so many side speeches and over-hearings, that one cannot help wondering how it is possible the different groups of actors should avoid seeing each other, if they have the good fortune to keep from treading on each other's toes.

On the whole, we may venture to assert that as long as the town continues to be enchanted by Mrs. Jordan, 'Love in many Masks' will live; but whenever we have the misfortune to lose her, it must sleep till another actress of equal merit in the same line appears.

ART. 14. *The Sick Laureat; or, Parnassus in Confusion: a Poem. In which the Merits and Defects of some of our principal modern Poets are ascertained.* 4to. 2s. Kearsley. London, 1789.

A report of the laureat being sick, calls together a variety of *characters*, for all of them cannot, without a strong figure, be called *poets*, to Hatfield, in order to exhibit their pretensions before Lord Salisbury. After as many as our bard chooses to exhibit have made their appearance, Warton recovers, and pressing this the remaining crowd relieves the peer

From the fatigues of the professor's chair.

By the following lines the reader may judge of the merit of the piece:

'Derby dismiss'd, Pratt next advanc'd to speak,
Once Courtney Melmoth ('twas a childish freak)
With honey'd flattery, his long practis'd trade,
His soft attack upon the peer he made:
'Illustrious son of an illustrious sire,
'Whom poets worship, and whom all admire;

'In

'In ev'ry feature of thy godlike face
'Shines attic wit, true judgment, sense, and grace.
'Thy lovely wife, just in her youthful prime,
'Calls in no art to hide the chinks of time;
'No art she wants, in maiden transports wild;
'She's just between the woman and the child.
'Oh thou art all!'—'Arrest thy cloying treat,'
The peer replied; 'the dose is much too sweet:
'Tis true we love the soothing voice of praise,
'When well wrapp'd up in smooth and artful lays;
'But praise like thine is quite another matter;
'So undeserved 'tis the severest satire;
'With hand unskilful to the work you rush,
'And daubing trowel, not a fine hair'd brush.'

The *judge-marquis* says a great deal more; and if it be really with an intention to recommend Mr. Pratt's former publications, as well as a poem he is preparing for the press, the *puff indirect* is managed with very great address.

ART. 15. *A Letter on the Practice of Boxing. Addressed to the King, Lords, and Commons. By the Rev. Edward Barry, A.M.* 8vo. 1s. Bew. London, 1789.

The practice of the ancient Greeks and Romans having been adduced in vindication of boxing, the author of this letter endeavours to shew that, whatever may have been the taste of those times, such rude examples ought never to be objects of imitation; that they are repugnant to the laws and maxims of a civilised state, evince but little courage, discover much barbarity, and, without being of any advantage to the community, are productive of much evil.

ART. 16. *A poetical Epistle to John Wolcot, commonly known by the Appellation of Peter Pindar.* 4to. 1s. Riebau. London, 1790.

There are a number of scribblers, who, having no merit of their own, endeavour to rise into notice by fastening themselves on some popular author. Any literary production which is successful, is always sure to produce imitators, who, taking advantage of the popularity of the original, endeavour to sell their trash of imitation or abuse. Thus Sterne was imitated by those who had pretensions neither to humour nor sentiment; and thus our friend Peter Pindar is unmercifully lashed by many, whose only talent at satire is scurrillity and calling names. Peter, we own, is liable to reprehension; the freedom he uses with majesty, and his other personalities, can neither be justified or excused. But to give efficacy to the rod, it must be placed in abler hands than those who have yet assumed it. There is not one good line in the performance before us. Of this sort of trash we have already had enough; and it is time that gentlemen should be weary of writing what we are most heartily tired of reviewing.

ART. 17. *De Montmorency; a Novel: founded on a recent Fact; interspersed with the Translation of an original Manuscript found in the Bastile.* 12mo. 2 vols. 5s. Bar. London, 1789.

Though these volumes are not likely to become standard, or even *parlour-window books*, they are superior to most of the hasty productions of a season, and will be found useful in the chamber of a convalescent, or to relieve the *ennui* of a watering-place.

ART. 18. ΑΝΑΛΕΚΤΑ ΕΛΛΗΝΙΚΑ *five Collectanea Græca ad usum Academicæ Juventutis accommodata. Tom. I. &c. Editio Secunda emendatior.* 8vo. 8s. Murray. London, 1789.

We have the pleasure to announce to the public the second edition of a selection from the Greek authors, which a few years since we shortly took notice of; a work which is calculated to promote and facilitate the study of the Greek language.

This volume consists wholly of prose, the editor having informed us in his preface of his intention to publish a volume of poetry on the same plan. The task, in the accurate manner in which this is conducted, will require labour and time. The two volumes when completed, with the smaller Collectanea already published by the same editor, and which may serve as an introduction to both, will be valuable acquisitions both to the student and teacher of the Greek language.

We cannot conclude without commending the diligence and learning which Mr. Dalzel has displayed in compiling this work. The public are certainly under obligations to those who are content to devote their time to philological inquiries in order to shorten the paths of study to others.

POLITICAL.

ART. 19. *Substance of the Speech of the Right Hon. Edmund Burke, in the Debate on the Army Estimates in the House of Commons, on Tuesday the 9th of Feb.* 1790; *comprehending a Discussion of the present Situation of Affairs in France.* 8vo. 1s. Debrett. London, 1790.

This pamphlet contains abstracts of the speeches of Mr. Burke, Mr. Fox, Mr. Sheridan, and Mr. Pitt, on the above subject. Mr. Burke's is principally attended to, and contains all that elaborate historical accuracy for which this ingenious orator is so justly famed. What he says of the French Revolution must strike every thinking mind with astonishment. After admitting that by the artifice of Louis the Fourteenth, with a well-disciplined standing army, despotism was established in France, 'that though this despotism was proudly arrayed in manners, gallantry, splendor, magnificence, and even covered over with the imposing robes of science, literature, and arts, it was in government nothing better than a painted and gilded tyranny; in religion an hard intolerance, the fit companion and auxiliary to the despotic tyranny which prevailed in its government.' After this gloomy description of the state of France before the revolution, we cannot help being surprised at the vehemence with which this

this philoſophical ſpeaker condemns all the abettors of the preſent changes. But as there are no proofs given of the authenticity of the publication, we ſhall forbear any further remarks.

ART. 20. *The Struggles of Sheridan; or, The Miniſtry in full Cry.* 4to. 1s. Kerby. London, 1790.

This author has at leaſt denominated his effuſion with propriety; for had ſuch tempting offers as he deſcribes ever been made to Mr. Sheridan, we may affirm, without any imputation derogatory to that gentleman, that it would have coſt him violent *ſtruggles* to reject them. The ſubject of this little poem is ſufficiently fantaſtic, and the verſification not unharmonious.

ART. 21. *Introduction to the Obſervations made by the Judges of the Court of Common Pleas for the Diſtrict of Quebec, &c.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale. London, 1790.

Some late tranſactions in the diſtrict of Quebec have given riſe to unfavourable imputations on the judicial adminiſtration in that province. It would be unneceſſary for us to enter upon a detail of thoſe incidents, which indeed are not ſufficiently explained towards forming a ſatisfactory opinion on the ſubject. We hope the conduct of the parties, when duly examined, will appear in a leſs blameable light than has been repreſented to government. In the mean time, it is moſt conſiſtent with juſtice and candour to ſuſpend our judgment on thoſe affairs.

ART. 22. *Conſiderations on a Commiſſion of Bankruptcy; in which the ſeveral Advantages and Diſadvantages attending the Recovery of Debts by Commiſſion, &c.* 8vo. 1s. Brook. London, 1789.

The author of theſe conſiderations appears to have reflected on the ſubject with great attention. By the various and comprehenſive rules which he preſcribes for eſtimating the comparative advantages or diſadvantages, to a creditor, of taking out a commiſſion of bankruptcy, he furniſhes the reader with ſuch explicit directions as may apply, if not in every ſubordinate circumſtance, at leaſt in a general view, to all poſſible caſes of the kind. We can therefore ſafely recommend this production to all who are concerned, either perſonally or profeſſionally, in the tranſactions of which it treats. To the former it will convey much uſeful information; and with regard to the latter, it will greatly facilitate their practice.

ART. 23. *The Farmer convinced; or, The Reviewers of the Monthly Review anatomiſed, their Ignorance expoſed, and their vague, futile, and fallacious Aſſertions refuted, &c.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Newberry. London, 1788.

As it might appear invidious in us to interfere in a controverſy of this kind, we ſhall only obſerve that the preſent author argues with a conſiderable degree of acuteneſs. He inveſtigates the ſubject minutely, and his remarks, in general, appear to be the reſult of experience.

DIVINITY.

ART. 24. *Apoſtolical Conceptions of God; being the Second Part of an antecedent Publication, and is more eſpecially addreſſed to the Favourers of the Arian and Socinian Perſuaſions.* Briſtol: printed for the Author, and ſold by Herdsfield, London. 8vo. 2s. 1790.

If this was the manner in which the apoſtles conceived, it is happy for us uninſpired Chriſtians that they brought forth differently. We have read our author's conceptions in every different direction, croſs-ways, backwards, from the bottom upwards, and beginning at the end; in all ways we have found it as unintelligible as in the ſtraight-forward way. But as one claſs of our readers may be fond of ænigmas, we would take the liberty of propoſing the following for their own and our edification:

'FIRST POSITION.

'Firſt. *Jeve, or Jeſus Chriſt, is exhibited to us, in the following paſſages, as two diſtinct perſonalities.*

'*Iſa.* ix. 6. For unto us' (Jeve Adni and Jeve of Hoſts) 'a child is born, unto us a ſon is given' (by the Holy Father) 'and the government ſhall be upon his ſhoulders, and his name ſhall be called wonderful, the mighty God' (our own known name), 'the Aionian father,' &c. *Ezek.* viii. 1—3. 'The hand of Jeve (Adni) fell upon me; and to the appearance of fire from his loins downwards, and from his loins alſo upwards, and he' (Jeve Adni) 'put forth the form of an hand, and took me by the lock of my head, and the ſpirit' (which was manifeſtly preſent with him), 'lift me up between the earth and the heaven, and brought me to Jeruſalem, to the door of the inner gate,' &c. *Prov.* ix. 10. 'The fear of Jeve is the beginning of wiſdom, and the knowledge of the Holy Ones' (namely of Jeve of Hoſts and his angelic proſopon) 'is underſtanding' (or the true wiſdom).'—Page 2 and 3.

Such as are fond of being puzzled, may open any other part of the book and be equally entertained.

ART. 25. *A Sermon preached for the Benefit of the Charity-School inſtituted at Upton upon Severn, in the Year* 1787. *By the Rev. Richard Sandilands, LL.D.* 8vo. 1s. Cadell. London, 1789.

Mercy is the ſubject of this diſcourſe, which is illuſtrated and applied with propriety. And trite as charity ſermons are now deemed, there is in this not only ſome novelty, but alſo ſome inſtruction. The reader who buys it in expectation of pleaſure and profit, will not be diſappointed. It is written with taſte, and calculated to affect every good mind, to ſoften the hearts of the ſelfiſh, and to improve the humanity of all.

ART. 26. *Sermons for Children; being a Courſe of Fifty-two, on Subjects ſuited to their tender Age, and in a Style adapted to the Underſtanding of the Riſing Generation; being an Attempt to counſel and improve their*

their Heart by occupying the Imagination; with an Hymn annexed to each Diſcourſe. The whole by the Rev. Mark Anthony Meilan. 12mo. 3 vols. 9s. London, 1789.

After ſo copious a title page, we have only to remark how far the execution is equal to what the author profeſſes. It is but juſtice to admit that the diſcourſes are all adapted to the age they are intended for. They are all ſhort, eaſily comprehended, and much pains is evidently taken to avoid any diſcuſſion of thoſe doctrinal points which are ſuited only to riper years.

ART. 27. *An Apology for the two Ordinances of Jeſus Chriſt, the holy Communion and Baptiſm.* 8vo. 1s. London, 1790.

This apology is written with great acuteneſs and force of argument. Mr. Applegarth, the author, had originally been of the ſect of the Quakers, but afterwards joined the communion of the Church of England. He combats the doctrines of the celebrated Barclay with much ingenuity, and clearly eſtabliſhes the celebration both of the holy communion and baptiſm upon the authority of the New Teſtament. We can perceive in the Apology ſome glimmerings of aſperity againſt the ſect which Mr. Applegarth has abandoned; but they lead him into no intemperate invectives, and ſerve only to enliven his refutation of their principal doctrines.

ART. 28. *The Influence of Chriſtianity on the Condition of the World; a Sermon preached in Trinity Chapel, Conduit Street, Sunday, December* 13, 1789. *By Thomas Coombe, D. D.* 8vo. 1s. Cadell. London, 1790.

Of this diſcourſe it is not eaſy to ſay whether elegance of compoſition, or its ſublimity, be moſt entitled to our praiſe. It is thus that the labours of the head, and the feelings of the heart, ſtrong reaſoning, and refined ſentiment, may be united and diſplayed with ſucceſs in eſtabliſhing the goſpel. And the author of this maſterly production ſets a laudable example of his attachment to the cauſe of religion, by avowing himſelf, in ſuch an age of faſhionable infidelity, a ſtrenuous advocate for its truth, from a ſerious conviction of its gracious and benign influence on the preſent condition of the world.

ART. 29. *A Vindication of the Honour of God, and of the Rights of Men; in a Letter to the Rev. Mr. De Coetlogon, occaſioned by the Publication of Mr. Edwards's Sermon on the Eternity of Hell Torments.* 12mo. 6d. Printed for the Author, and ſold by Johnſon. London, 1789.

In human concerns we ſay, *ſummum jus ſumma injuria*; but, without requiring any allowance in the Deity for human weakneſs, it is difficult to conceive any crimes committed in this life which cannot be expiated by torments continued for a finite ſeries of ages. This has appeared ſo reaſonable to the generality of mankind in all ages, that the idea of eternal torments has ever been a matter of doubt or concern to all true believers, and of ſcorn and ridicule to infidels.

At length the ſanction which a late learned divine* has given to the doctrine of the final reſtitution of all things, has had the deference paid to it which ſuch a character and the reaſonableneſs of the doctrine entitled it to. But the gloomy ſpirit of a ſect that has almoſt exiſted by its declamatory damnations, muſt ever be averſe to an opinion which would deprive their diſcourſes of more than half their efficacy.

Mr. Clarke defers entering very minutely into the texts adduced from ſcripture in favour of the old opinions, to a larger work, which he ſays is ready for the preſs, and which we hope will ſoon make its appearance.

ART. 30. *A Sermon preached in the Chapel of the Aſylum, on Sunday Morning, March 29, 1789. By the Rev. Septimus Hodſon, M. B. late of Caius College, Cambridge, Miniſter of Taviſtock Chapel, Long-Acre, and Chaplain in Ordinary to the Prince of Wales.* 8vo. 1s. Cadell. London, 1789.

Mr. Hodſon being accuſed by ſome anonymous writer of having preached at the Aſylum a probationary ſermon ſtolen from Dr. Ogden, very modeſtly apologiſes for obtruding himſelf on the public as an author, in order to obviate ſo unjuſt a calumny. The well-known moral character of Mr. Hodſon might have rendered his aſſertion ſufficient; but the peculiar delicacy of his ſituation, at that time a candidate for the chaplaincy of the Aſylum, made him conceive ſomething more might be neceſſary. He therefore requeſts his accuſer to move for his [Mr. Hodſon's] perſonal attendance before the guardians of the Aſylum, to produce his manuſcript, and that the ſaid accuſer will come forward with the volume from which he ſuſpects the ſermon to be ſtolen. As a farther challenge he propoſes the guardians ſhould require an affidavit that the ſermons printed are in ſubſtance the ſame as thoſe preached; and that they were compoſed by Mr. Hodſon, without the aſſiſtance of any ſecond perſon whatſoever. The event ſhews how well ſatisfied the majority of guardians were.

Of the Sermon we ſhall only ſay that, conſidering how hacknied the ſubject is, it is far above mediocrity. The ſentiments are juſt, forcibly expreſſed, and ſometimes new; the language is ſtrong and expreſſive; the periods round and flowing. The addreſs to the guardians, as ſuch, is moſt happily conceived.

The profits of the Sermon are appropriated to the benefit of the charity.

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* Dr. Newton, Biſhop of Briſtol.

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS

For MAY, 1790.

THERE was never a more ſudden TRANSITION from the proſpect of peace and a growing revenue, to that of war with its concomitant difficulties and expence, than has happened in the courſe of theſe few weeks; for it is no longer, ſince the miniſter, on the great occaſion of deſcribing the ſtate of the nation, ſpoke as if we had now arrived at that happy period when all additional burthens were at an end, and when an accumulating ſinking fund would, by a rapid operation, liquidate the debt already contracted by the nation. Scarcely were the panegyrics on the miniſter, in conſequence of ſuch glad tidings, pronounced, when he again comes to parliament, and announces the probability of a war with Spain. His political adverſaries did not fail to expoſe him, by urging that he either foreſaw the probability of a rupture with Spain, when he opened the budget, or did not. If he did foreſee it, why, for the ſake of a pleaſing deluſion which a ſhort time muſt deſtroy, did he not then declare it? If he did not, where were all our foreign ambaſſadors, where that vigilance and ſagacity that ought to diſtinguiſh the miniſter of a great nation? Motions were made, in both houſes, for the production of ſuch papers as might point out, if not in all caſes the ſubſtance, (which, it was confeſſed, might in certain caſes be improper), yet the *dates* of the intelligence that he had received concerning the movements of Spain. Theſe motions were, and in our opinion wiſely, negatived. On this occaſion the conduct and character of the miniſter were examined, as might be expected, with unuſual ſtrictneſs and ſeverity. The fair proſpects on which he had reſted his merit and fame, peace and a reduction of the public debt, were ready to vaniſh; diſtreſs and new debts ſtared us in the face; the inſincerity of the miniſter, which had been manifeſted on ſome former occaſions, was, on this, tinctured with a degree of puerility. The habit of diſſimulation had grown upon him ſo ſtrong, that he exerciſed it even when it appeared to be unneceſſary. Such was the language of the adverſaries of Mr. Pitt.—On the other hand, it was contended, that as Mr. Pitt was not reſponſible for the motives that might urge the Spaniards to hoſtilities againſt England, ſo neither would it be prudent to declare even the *dates* of the intelligence concerning their movements. A compliance with a ſimilar motion, in the courſe of the laſt war, as was well obſerved by the Duke of Leeds, had dried up a very material ſource of public intelligence. The apparent inconſiſtency between the different appearances

pearances made by the miniſter in parliament, and the withholding papers, might ſeem to give his adverſaries a temporary triumph; but their triumph would not be laſting. The grounds on which he acted would be juſtified by events, and the diſcloſure of facts at a proper ſeaſon.

Men of candour and moderation neither joined the adherents of Mr. Pitt in their exaggerated praiſes, nor his adverſaries in their zeal to ſcrutiniſe his conduct with regard to the point in queſtion, and to inveigh againſt his general character. The great criſes of nations, whether proſperous or adverſe, depend on cauſes beyond the reach of ſtateſmen and princes. As Mr. Pitt ought not, by any aſſociation of ideas or illuſory power of the imagination, to be conſidered as the author of bleſſings that ſpring, under Providence, from liberty, commercial habits, enterpriſe, and extenſive capitals; ſo neither is he to be charged with the neceſſity of warlike preparations, nor called upon prematurely to give an account of his conduct as a *war-miniſter*, even before the war has commenced. A higher power than any political CHIEF or ſovereign, muſt be acknowledged both in the ſunſhine and the ſtorms that lour or fall on nations.—Setting aſide, therefore, the adventitious circumſtances of war or peace, we ought to draw our concluſions concerning Mr. Pitt ſolely from the premiſes of his own actions. But this is a ſubject on which we ſhall not at preſent enter. The opinion that is entertained of Mr. Pitt by the public will be ſhewn by

THE DISSOLUTION OF THE OLD AND ELECTION OF A NEW PARLIAMENT.

Concerning this ſubject there are various and contradictory reports and conjectures. What ſeems probable to us, at the preſent moment, is, if the miniſter, on the return of the meſſenger from Spain, foreſees nothing but war, he will diſſolve the parliament as ſoon as poſſible; that is, in the courſe of two, or at moſt of three weeks. If room is left, or ſhall appear to be left, for negociation, he will put off the diſſolution of parliament until he ſhall have aſſerted the honour of Great-Britain by ſome conceſſion or apology from Spain, which may maintain, or, as ſome would ſay, reſtore his popularity, and enable him thereby to call a general election with advantage.

THE THREATENED RUPTURE WITH SPAIN

Is a ſource of endleſs reflection and conjecture. The Spaniards, who were not diſarmed by the precipitate peace of 1783, continued to increaſe their ſtrength both at ſea and land. The ceſſion of Minorca, the Floridas, and the whole Moſquito Shore, inflamed the pride of a nation that reſted the glory of their monarchy very much on the boundleſs extent of their territory.

ritory, and who, with arms in their own hands, ſaw the Britiſh nation immerſed in commerce, and her miniſter placing his ſtability and glory chiefly in the accumulation of revenue; an object from which, they imagined, he would not be eaſily diverted. They took an emphatic proteſt againſt the ſettlement of the Engliſh at Nootka Sound, a portion of that coaſt of which, in conſequence of a famous papal bull, they claimed the excluſive property. In the mean time, the ſtorm that had been for ſome years gathering againſt the Houſe of Bourbon, in the centre of France, had begun to fall, and ſome preluſive drops announced a general commotion, not only in the colonies, but on the continent of Spain. In theſe circumſtances, the courts of Verſailles and Madrid, it is natural to conjecture, wiſhed to divert the attention of the people from the claims of men, to drown the murmurs of diſcontent in the din of war, and, by ſtrengthening the military power, to confirm the royal prerogative.—If

GREAT BRITAIN,

According to preſent appearances, ſhall be dragged irreſiſtibly into a war with Spain, it is difficult to conceive any cauſe, or any circumſtances, in which nation could contend with nation with greater glory and advantage.

1. The Engliſh nation, in maintaining their right to ſettle a colony at Nootka Sound, aſſert a right in which all mankind are concerned, and determine, in the face of the attentive world, a grand queſtion in the law of nature and nations. The earth is the common inheritance of man. Each individual has a right to poſſeſs and cultivate an equal ſhare. But where, and what the extent of that ſhare, is to be determined only by occupancy and labour. It is vain and fruitleſs to oppoſe to a maxim ſo obvious to common-ſenſe, and conſonant with univerſal cuſtom, ideal rights derived from vicinity of ſituation, or the charm of landing on a deſert ſhore, and hoiſting a flag, or erecting a column, in the name of any particular monarch. Rights, founded on ſuch circumſtances, are as indefinite in their extent as chimerical in their nature; for who ſhall determine the point to which the magical occupancy of the pillar or the pole ſhall extend? and what line ſhall circumſcribe the indefinite *parage?* Still more abſurd, if poſſible, is the idea of a right founded on a grant, four hundred years ago, by an arrogant and ignorant hierarch, whoſe munificent donations, if he had really poſſeſſed them, the acknowledged ſphericity of the earth would have turned into indelible ridicule.—Though men, by entering into ſociety, and partaking of its advantages, ſubmit the r natural rights to ſuch regulations as may be eſtabliſhed for the general good, yet they can never be underſtood to have wholly renounced them. An equal ſhare of land is the birthright of every

every man: though he may exchange that right for the benefits of living under the artificial reſtraints of ſociety. In the preſent queſtion we ſuppoſe, what may be in fair reaſoning, the caſe of all mankind, at any given period, viz. being ſet down on the earth at the ſame time, by the hand of their common parent. In this caſe each individual would undoubtedly have a right to a fair portion of the ſoil not to be alienated but by an expreſs compact in mature age, after having been, or having had a free opportunity of actual poſſeſſion.—Now, what individuals are to individuals, in a ſtate of ſociety, an independent nation is to an independent nation. If any ſtate, then, feels itſelf to be circumſcribed, it has a right to a ſettlement wherever it can acquire it without treſpaſſing on ground already appropriated by pre-occupancy and labour. The Engliſh nation, therefore, have a right to poſſeſs as much of the deſert coaſt of America as they can cultivate; and no more. If any other European colony chuſes to ſettle in their neighbourhood, they have not any title to diſpoſſeſs them. As to the policy of colonizing

NOOTKA SOUND,

that is a queſtion which may, perhaps, admit of doubt. After the laſt peace, by which we gave up our pretenſions to the ſovereignty of America, it was the faſhion to ſay, that we were well rid of it. Many treatiſes were written to prove our loſs in ſuſtaining, nurſing and protecting our American colonies; and in reality it ſoon appeared that after we had loſt our excluſive trade with America, that general ſpirit of induſtry and enterprize, and thoſe capitals and commercial habits which diſtinguiſh England, found other and more productive channels.—Shall we boaſt of our advantages in giving up a tree in full bearing, and fight for the property of a plant? But, in candour and truth, the national honour of Great-Britain ought to be ſupported: and in this point all parties are happily and glorioufly agreed. Great and wiſe governments have always been jealous of national glory: it is an active principle which, properly cultivated, diffuſes throughout every branch of the ſtate the vital energy of virtuous actions.

2. GREAT-BRITAIN, in maintaining a conflict with Spain on the preſent ground of quarrel, appears foremoſt among the nations, on the ſide of liberty. The Leaders of the Houſe of Bourbon make war for the purpoſe of drawing off the awakened and awakening ſpirit of their ſubjects into new channels, from whence it may be evaporated by the effuſion of blood: and with the flower of the nation, called to arms, intend to turn theſe, after peace againſt the juſt claims of the people. Britain is placed in a ſituation in which it becomes equally her duty and intereſt to proclaim to the Spaniſh nation the deſigns of the FOREIGN family and councils by whom they are now governed.

It will be good policy to declare in our manifeſtoes, that we wage war, not with the nation but with *the court*, and that we will refer much of the matters in diſpute to the judgment of the CORTEZ.

3. The rich and widely-ſcattered dependencies of the Spaniſh monarchy, and the nature of their national wealth which expoſes it to invaſion at ſea, preſent to a great maritime power, ſuch as England, an inviting opportunity of carrying on a predatory war, which muſt be ill-conducted indeed if it does not, at leaſt, ſupport itſelf.—Even if the Britiſh government were wholly ſilent and inactive, there is at preſent ſuch a maſs of wealth, and ſo high a ſpirit of enterprize, among the trading people of England, that the Spaniards, ſingle-handed and unſupported by any other powers, would in the end be vanquiſhed and driven from the ocean by Britiſh privateers, or letters of marque fitted out by private adventurers.—Military as well as naval adventurers, as in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, might happily unite their private reputation and fortune with the public proſperity and glory of their country.—Certain projects that were formed, on very probable grounds of ſucceſs, in the late war againſt the Spaniards, but never carried into execution, might be reſumed with greater advantage.—The 98th and the 100th regiments, conſiſting of 1000 men each, and raiſed by Colonel Humberſton and Colonel Fullarton, were originally deſtined by Lord George Germaine, according to a plan of Fullarton's, to be ſent to India, there to be joined by a number of laſcars and ſepoys and ſome ſhips of force, and thence to proceed againſt the Spaniſh ſettlements in South America. But, on the appearances of the Dutch war, an attempt was projected againſt the Cape of Good Hope. And to this laſt, adminiſtration gave the preference, which promiſed to have ſhaken the Spaniſh empire in the ſouthern hemiſphere *.

It may, at firſt ſight, and we underſtand that it is in fact very generally ſuppoſed, that the Spaniards will never be ſo mad as to carry their threats of war into execution. It is ſcarcely worth while to indulge ſpeculation on a point which muſt ſo ſoon be determined.

MOTIVES OF SPAIN.

We ſhall only obſerve, that neither are there motives of neceſſity wanting to urge the Spaniards to arms, nor *rays of hope*, at leaſt, to invite them. Not to inſiſt farther on the ſcheme of compoſing internal diſſention by foreign war, we may obſerve, that the Engliſh have eſtabliſhed a colony in Botany Bay, and a fiſhery near the coaſts of Chili. They now take poſſeſſion of Nootka Sound: nor will this, the Spaniards may naturally ſuppoſe, be the laſt of their enterprizes in thoſe quarters.—Other nations, the Dutch, and Danes, and Swedes, if a timely check

* See memoirs of the late war in Aſia.

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is not given to the growing evil, may follow their example. The Spaniards, ſurrounded and intermixed with ſo many maritime powers, would loſe their authority in South America,—without which, ſince the decline of their induſtry and population in Europe, they are nothing. The king of Spain, therefore, is impelled to fight for an excluſive right to what is little better to him than a *terra incognita, tanquam pro aris et focis.*

AGAIN, it is more than probable that the Spaniſh monarch is ſecretly aſſured of the ſtrenuous co-operation of the great northern powers, as well as of whatever aid can be ſpared by France, Naples, and Sardinia. Neither the Auſtrians nor Ruſſians, it is true, can afford any material aid by ſea, but they may damp and check much of our naval exertion by invading Hanover, and the dominions of our continental allies, and by threatening to invade, if not actually invading Great-Britain.—An invaſion, let it be obſerved, is not, as is by many ſuppoſed, to be prevented by the ſuperiority of our fleet, While the Engliſh navy is kept at bay by the combined fleet, we ſhall ſuppoſe, of Spain, France, Venice, and Ruſſia, a thouſand tranſports land men on the coaſt of Britain. The liberty and political independency of Great-Britain, we cheerfully grant, is not to be ſubdued by foreign invaſion. But why may not projects of invaſion be formed now by the Auſtrians and Ruſſians, as well as formerly by Charles XII. of Sweden?

Farther; a ſpirited attack on Great-Britain by Spain, would produce a general war in Europe. But the iſſue of war is extremely uncertain; and the crown of Spain, tottering on the head of a young and ambitious ſovereign, may be fixed, not loſt, by an appeal to arms.—If

A GENERAL WAR

ſhould indeed take place, a more magnificent, or rather, if we ſuffer ourſelves to reflect on the miſeries of war, a more awful ſpectacle will be diſplayed than was ever diſplayed to the world. The ſcene of action will be more extended, the parties contending more numerous, the ſtratagems and machinations of war more various and effective. No quarter of the globe, and ſcarcely any kingdom in Europe, will be unengaged in the wide conflict. On the one ſide, we may arrange

TIPPOO SULTAN,

Who has already commenced war on our good ally the King of Travancore, the French, the Spaniards, the Italians, the Auſtrians, with their German allies, and the Ruſſians; on the other, Turkey, Sweden, Holland, Poland, the Pruſſians, with their German allies, Great-Britain, and probably the Anglo-Americans, between whom and the Spaniards there are irreconcileable cauſes of oppoſition and diſcord. Who are to be the great leaders on either ſide, to give the general impulſe and direction to the confederacies, cannot, at this moment, be aſcertained;

tained; though it would have been impoſſible to err in our conjectures and anticipations relative to one of them, before the death of the late Pruſſian monarch. How great a part would Frederic have had to act on this grand occaſion! Though nothing was wanting, either to the meaſure of his years or his glory, yet our imagination delights to dwell on the idea of the great politician, philoſopher, and hero, at the age of eighty, by his counſels and arms, ſaving the Turkiſh empire, which, about thirty years ago, would ſcarcely deign to enter into a negociation for the ſalvation of Pruſſia, reſiſting the confederacy among the great continental powers, and maintaining the liberties of Europe!——While

THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY OF FRANCE

Are buſied in ſettling a new order of affairs, the proteſtants of Montauban, and many other ſufferers, confeſs the ſupreme bleſſing of eſtabliſhed government of ſome kind, and with tears of blood deplore the preſent interregnum. The Aſſembly have, by aſſuming the power of making peace and war, reduced the grand monarque to the ſituation of the Ram-rajah of the Marattàs; a nominal king, wearing royalty in fetters. The reſult of this act who can prognoſticate? What foreign power can treat with twelve hundred men? or how can twelve hundred men give unity and conſiſtency to the operation of internal government?

NETHERLANDS.

The counter-revolution that is threatened in the Netherlands by the vigorous preparations of the Auſtrians, and the diſunion of the ariſtocratical and republican parties, occaſions the leſs regret among all moderate men, that the ſtates aim plainly at the eſtabliſhment of themſelves into a number of petty ſovereigns, or, as a Greek or Roman would have ſaid, of tyrants. Who, without indignation, can behold the treatment of VANDERMERSCH, the ſaviour of his country, confined in the citadel of Antwerp? What friend of human nature but is anxious for his ſafety? What reaſonable man, that contemplates his ſituation, but muſt acknowledge that the tyranny of ariſtocracy is equal to that of a ſingle deſpot!

ENGLAND.

Amidſt all the viciſſitudes of human affairs the Britiſh parliament is regularly diverted, once every week, from the laudable and important buſineſs of the political *epopæia* to that everlaſting epiſode the trial of

MR. HASTINGS.

General Burgoyne complains that Major Scott has brought a railing accuſation againſt what was determined by a majority of the Houſe of Commons. The Major ſhews that there is nothing more common than for Mr. Fox, Mr. Burke, and other

leaders

leaders of oppoſition, to arraign deciſions of the Houſe of Commons with the greateſt freedom. This *argumentum ad hominem* is unanſwerable. It is rather unfortunate that General Burgoyne ſhould have ſtood forth as an indirect proſecutor of Mr. Haſtings. Is there no character in which Sir W. H——e or Sir H. C——n could appear in this comedy? It is now neceſſary to introduce ſome new actors, for it has confeſſedly degenerated, in the hands of the preſent manager, into a moſt miſerable monotony. How long ſhall we wait for its termination? till Mr. D——s ceaſe to worſhip the powers that be! Mr. P—tt have no private views to ſerve by haraſſing the ſaviour of India! Till Mr. Wyndham is unable to make a logical diſtinction! Mr. Fox incapable of turning an argument into different modes and forms! and Mr. Burke of inventing new analogies, and making amuſing digreſſions!

Ruſticus expectat dum defluat amnis at ille
Labitur et labetur in omne volubilis ævum.

To Correspondents.

☞ *We return the Rev. Mr.* Vince *our thanks for his very polite letter. We were miſtaken in the price of his Treatiſe on Practical Aſtronomy, it being only* 15*s. At the ſame time we cannot retract what we have ſaid of his account of Vernier's ſcale. We do not deny that ſuch a diviſion as he deſcribes might exiſt; but, with all ſubmiſſion to our reſpectable author, we maintain that it would not be accommodated to practice. If the difference between the two ſcales were expreſſed, as he aſſerts, by the fraction* $\frac{1}{n.n+1}$, *the diviſor would be the product of two contiguous numbers, an even and an uneven. But it is obvious that this contrivance would admit of a very limited application. There are no two adjacent factors, for inſtance, of the numbers* 60, 100, 500, *or* 1000; *and it would therefore be impoſſible, by Mr.* Vince's *method, to divide the unit into theſe parts, though nothing is more common in the ſubdiviſion of the degree or the inch. The denominator of the fraction* $\frac{1}{nm}$, *which we have ſtated as the difference between the parts of the proximate ſcales, is produced by the multiplication of any two factors indiſcriminately, and conſequently offers a great variety of choice. We ſhall confeſs, however, that our analyſis is but a novel attempt, and that our age and ſituation have afforded but few opportunities of examining aſtronomical inſtruments.*

☞ *Communications for* The English Review *are requeſted to be ſent to* Mr. Murray, *No.* 32, Fleet-ſtreet, London; *where Subſcribers for this Monthly Performance are reſpectfully deſired to give in their Names.*

THE

ENGLISH REVIEW,

For JUNE 1790.

ART. I. *Travels to discover the Source of the Nile, in the Years 1768, 1769, 1770, 1771, 1772, and 1773. In Five Volumes. By James Bruce, of Kinnaird, Esq. F. R. S.* 4to. 5l. 5s. boards. Edinburgh, printed: G. G. J. and J. Robinson, London. 1790.

[*Continued.*]

THE main body of the work is divided into eight books, and these again into chapters. The first book relates the author's travels in Egypt, and his voyage in the Red Sea, till his arrival at Masuah, whence he takes his departure for Abyssinia: but he suspends the narrative of his progress till he has given in the second book an account of the first ages of the Indian and African trade, of the first peopling of Abyssinia and Atbara, and has offered his conjectures concerning the origin of language in those countries. These two books fill the first volume. The second ponderous tome contains 718 pages, and delivers the history of Abyssinia, from the restoration of the (supposed) line of Solomon, in the 13th century, till the author's arrival. These annals are translated by the author from the Ethiopic original, which is deposited in the British Museum to satisfy the curiosity of the public. This arrangement may appear, at first sight, extraordinary; but it was proper to prepare the reader for those events which took place in Abyssinia during Mr. Bruce's residence there, and to introduce him by this previous narrative to the principal performers in them. In the third volume the au-

thor ſets out from the coaſt of the Red Sea, purſues his laborious journey, arrives at the capital of Abyſſinia, gives an account of the manners and cuſtoms of the natives, makes a firſt but unſucceſsful attempt to diſcover the ſource of the Nile, and then, having renewed his attempt with ſucceſs, he relates his obſervations, and delivers his theories concerning the origin and progreſs of that celebrated river. The fourth volume contains his return from the ſource of the Nile to Gondar, the capital of Abyſſinia: the tranſactions there, the continuation and end of a civil war, his departure from Abyſſinia, his return by Sennaar through Nubia and the great deſert, and his arrival at Cairo and paſſage to Marſeilles. The fifth, much more ſlender than its brothers, contains his obſervations relating to that hiſtory, with figures of quadrupeds, birds, and plants, beſides three maps. This is, however, only a ſelection from a much larger maſs of materials; to the expence of publiſhing the whole the author profeſſes his circumſtances to be inadequate.

Mr. Bruce in his introduction profeſſes to paſs lightly over Egypt and Arabia, and in forbearing to criticiſe Mr. Niebuhr, or to diſſent from him, returns the politeneſs of the King of Denmark, who inſtructed the ſociety he ſent out to viſit Palmyra and Baalbec, but by no means to form the plan of a work ſimilar to that of the Engliſh travellers, Wood and Dawkins, or to interfere with them. Such ceremonious politeneſs, however, without anſwering any good purpoſe, ſeems unfavourable to the advancement of knowledge and the diffuſion of truth. Where Niebuhr wants correction, he might be corrected without diſreſpect or inſult.

Having ſet ſail from Sidon, our traveller touches at Cyprus, arrives at Alexandria, travels by land to Rozetto, and is conveyed by the Nile to Cairo. The topography of the two great branches of the Nile has been ſo laboriouſly illuſtrated by Niebuhr, not to mention Pococke or other travellers, that only a few detached remarks could be expected from Mr. Bruce. One meteorological obſervation deſerves to be ſelected. From the Mediterranean he ſaw a number of thin, white clouds moving with great rapidity from ſouth to north, in direct oppoſition to the courſe of the Eteſian winds: theſe clouds were immenſely high. He thought it evident that they came from the mountains of Abyſſinia, where, having diſcharged their weight of rain, and being preſſed by the lower current of heavier air from the north, they returned to reſtore the equilibrium to the northward, whence they were to come back loaded with vapour from mount Taurus, to occaſion the overflowing of the Nile by breaking againſt the high and rugged mountains of the ſouth. The motion of different ſtrata of air in contrary directions cannot

cannot indeed be doubted. But it does not ſeem ſo eaſy to underſtand why mount Taurus ſhould be taxed to ſupply the Abyſſinian mountains with rain, nor how the daſhing of clouds againſt the high mountains of the ſouth, ſhould ſhake the rain out of them. Whenever the cauſes, as yet ſo little underſtood, which precipitate the humidity of the atmoſphere, exert their action, the air of the Abyſſinian or other mountains, from whatever quarter it may come, will ſupply water for the formation of clouds and rain. Mr. Bruce appears to conſider clouds as bags or ſponges filled with vapour at mount Taurus, to be emptied or ſqueezed out in Abyſſinia, and then to be returned for a freſh ſupply. He did not, perhaps, himſelf trace out this analogy completely; but it is involved in his theory, which is better calculated to pleaſe the imagination at the firſt glance, by an air of plauſibility, than to bear a careful examination.

Mr. Bruce, during his ſtay at Cairo, felt the ſame ſentiments of diſapprobation and diſguſt at its government which other travellers have expreſſed. But circumſtances ſeem to have been peculiarly favourable to him. A native Copt had acquired almoſt unlimited ſway over the mind of Ali Bey, whoſe faction at that time prevailed in Egypt. Riſk, ſuch was the favourite's name, profeſſed aſtrology, in which the Egyptians all believe. The aſtronomical inſtruments of Mr. Bruce impreſſed Riſk with reverence for his ſuperior attainments, and he hoped to ſecure his influence over his maſter by obtaining ſome communications of future events, particularly with regard to the ſucceſs of an enterpriſe againſt Mecca, which Ali Bey had juſt then formed. With ſuch prepoſſeſſions in his favour, it was eaſy for Mr. Bruce to procure letters of recommendation to every place within the ſphere of the influence of the court of Cairo; and ſuch letters were accordingly addreſſed to Shekh Haman, to the governor of Syene, Ibrim and Deir in Upper Egypt, to the Bey of Suez, the Sherriffe of Mecca, the Naybe or ſovereign of Maſuah, and the King of Sennaar. From the Greek patriarch he was alſo able to obtain a powerful recommendation to the Greeks in Abyſſinia.

The antiquities of Cairo diſappointed his expectations, and attracted little of his notice. Of the origin of the pyramids he has ſtarted a new opinion. He declares them not to have been piled up by the labour of architecture, but to have been hewn out of rocks, ſtanding on the ſpot. But the reader will deſire to hear him on this ſubject himſelf:

'I think it more extraordinary ſtill that, for ſuch a time as theſe pyramids have been known, travellers were content rather to follow the report of the ancients than to make uſe of their own eyes.

'Yet it has been a conſtant belief that the ſtones compoſing theſe pyramids have been brought from the Libyan mountains, though any one who will take the pains to remove the ſand on the ſouth ſide will find the ſolid rock there hewn into ſteps.

'And in the roof of the large chamber, where the ſarcophagus ſtands, as alſo in the top of the roof of the gallery, as you go up into the chamber, you ſee large fragments of the rock, affording an unanſwerable proof that thoſe pyramids were once huge rocks, ſtanding where they now are; that ſome of them, the moſt proper from their form, were choſen for the body of the pyramid, and the others hewn into ſteps, to ſerve for the ſuperſtructure and the exterior parts of them.'

The pyramids, we mean the three great pyramids of Geeza, are of ſoft calcareous ſtone, containing many fragments of ſhells. Such alſo is the rock on which they reſt. By the ſide of the third only there are ſome pieces of granite, but not ſufficient to face it. Theſe circumſtances, which we quote from memory chiefly from Niebuhr, ſeem rather favourable to Mr. Bruce's ideas. Yet the teſtimony of Herodotus muſt be weighed againſt them; and the Daniſh traveller examined the outſide of theſe immenſe ſtructures with great care, and climbed to the ſummit of one of them, without entertaining any ſuch ſuſpicion; and we need not inſiſt upon the temptation of a new hypotheſis.

Armed with the recommendations we have mentioned, and his own reſolution, a paſſport more effectual than them all, our traveller embarks on the Nile for Upper Egypt, on board a canja, a veſſel of peculiar conſtruction, and well adapted to the navigation of that river. Two immenſe ſails (the main-ſail yard is 200 feet in length), diſtended with the Eteſian winds, impel it at the rate of eight miles an hour againſt a ſtream that runs ſix. The keel is not ſtraight, but a portion of a parabola, whoſe curve is almoſt inſenſible to the eye; hence in the ſhallows the keel, where the curve is greateſt, ſtrikes againſt the ſand and is faſt, while the reſt of the veſſel is afloat, 'ſo that 'by the help of oars and the aſſiſtance of the ſtream, furling 'your ſails, you get eaſily off; whereas was the keel ſtraight, and 'the veſſel going with the preſſure of that immenſe main-ſail, you 'would be ſo faſt upon the bank as to lie there like a wreck for 'ever.' In deſcending, the maſts are taken out, and the canja goes with the current. Such contrivances as theſe, which ſhew how invention has been ſharpened by neceſſity, and that the human mind can exert its powers even under the oppreſſion of a deſpotic government, are worthy of the notice of every judicious traveller; and accordingly Mr. Bruce has our thanks for his deſcription and drawings of the canja.

In

In his voyage up the Nile he diſcuſſes the celebrated queſtion concerning the ſituation of Memphis. In oppoſition to Shaw, he places it with Pococke, D'Anville, and Niebuhr, at Metrahenny inſtead of Geeza, that is, about ten miles further ſouth. Thoſe who are intereſted in the queſtion will find ſome weight in his arguments; but he might perhaps have done well to recollect the remark of our great hiſtorian, 'that, in their heat, 'the diſputants have forgot that the ample ſpace of a metropolis 'covers and annihilates the far greater part of the controverſy*;' and he might eaſily have enlarged the liſt of his authorities.

Other travellers have deſcribed the earthen-ware rafts of the Nile. To ſome readers the following account of a peculiar method of fiſhing may be amuſing. After ſailing about two miles from Metrahenny, he ſaw three men fiſhing in a very extraordinary manner. They were on a raft of palm branches, ſupported on a float of clay jars, made faſt together. The form was like an Iſoſceles triangle, or face of a pyramid; two men, each provided with a caſting net, ſtood at two of the corners, and threw their net into the ſtream together; the third ſtood at the apex of the triangle, or third corner, which was foremoſt, and threw his net the moment the other two drew theirs out of the water; and this they repeated with ſurpriſing regularity, and in perfect time.

In his progreſs he paſſes by numerous villages, all ſurrounded with palms, verdant and pleaſant, but conveying an idea of ſameneſs, ſuch as every traveller muſt have felt who has ſailed in the muddy, placid, green-banked rivers of Holland. Higher up he ſaw plantations of the ſugar-cane, and a narrow ſtripe of wheat, accompanied the courſe of the river. We paſs over ſome unintereſting anecdotes of the cowardice and vanity of the Egyptian watermen. At Dendera, lat. 26° 10″, 'a place that would 'have given more ſatisfaction than all Upper Egypt,' though it was miſſed by Norden, our traveller meets with magnificent ruins of a temple, 'which ſtrike and impoſe upon you at firſt 'ſight, but the impreſſions are like thoſe made by the ſize of 'mountains, which the mind does not retain any conſiderable 'time after ſeeing them.' Of hieroglyphics there are here ſuch abundance, that a very ready hand might ſpend ſix months before he could copy them; and they are in ſeveral combinations, which have not yet appeared in the collection of hieroglyphics. We lament 'that it was no part of Mr. Bruce's plan or in-'clination to enter into the detail of this extraordinary archi-'tecture.' At the ruins of ancient Thebes his attention is firſt

* Gibbon, IX. 431, 8vo. edit.

engaged by Shaamy and Taamy, two coloſſal figures in a ſitting poſture, of which one has a very remarkable head-dreſs, which can be compared to nothing but a tie-wig, ſuch as is worn in the preſent day. The ſtatues were probably Nilometers; the Greek and Latin inſcriptions with which they are covered ſeem to be the teſtimonies of thoſe who had heard Memnon's ſtatue utter the ſound it was ſaid to do upon being ſtruck by the rays of the ſun.

Of the hieroglyphics found in the remains of the four prodigious temples here, he obſerves that he could never make the number amount to above 514; whence he concludes that they could never be an entire language, for no language could be comprehended in 500 words; nor could they be letters, as ſuch an alphabet would be too large, yet he objects to himſelf that the Chineſe have more than 500 letters in uſe; 'but who,' ſays he, 'underſtands the Chineſe?' But it may be remarked, that it is the character of unformed and barbarous languages to be deficient in words. Cicero and Lucretius found this to be the caſe with the Latin in compariſon with the Greek; and it is eaſy to perceive that each of theſe hieroglyphics might have ſeveral diſtinct meanings; and ſo 500 ſigns might expreſs almoſt 5000 things: thus the form of a lion might expreſs a particular animal, a ſign of the zodiac, a month of the year, and two or three moral qualities, as courage, ferociouſneſs, &c. The meaning would be determined by the context, though much ambiguity neceſſarily accompanies this hieroglyphical mode of writing.

The mountains above or behind Thebes are hollowed out into numberleſs caverns; and robbers, who much reſemble our gypſies, live in the holes of the mountains above Thebes; and of theſe mountains an hundred, it is ſaid, are excavated into ſepulchral and a variety of other apartments. the mouths of theſe he regards as the hundred gates of Homer's Thebes. Mr. Bruce went through ſeven of them, of which he deſcribes the ſtructure and highly finiſhed ornaments. He gives us two drawings of harps ſo elegant in their form and clearly expreſſed in the detail of their parts, as to argue great perfection in the art of muſic; and the painting is ſaid to be ſuch as our ſign-poſts exhibit. Mr. Bruce looks upon theſe harps as the Theban harps in uſe in the time of Seſoſtris; and he conſiders them as an inconteſtible proof, were they the only monuments remaining, that every art neceſſary to the conſtruction, ornament, and uſe of this inſtrument was in the higheſt perfection. Other arts were conſiderably advanced. The method of hewing the hardeſt ſtones, '*with the greateſt eaſe*,' was practiſed, as theſe ſubterranean caverns and their hieroglyphics atteſt.

All

All further reſearches into theſe monuments of remote antiquity were ſtopped by an adventure ſuch as few travellers have encountered. In order to conceive Mr. Bruce's ſituation, as it is deſcribed in the following quotation, the reader ſhould advert to the dreary ſolitude of the place, the barbarity of the country, and the helpleſſneſs of a traveller benighted in a dangerous and unknown region:

'Upon ſeeing the preparations I was making to proceed farther in my reſearches, my conductors loſt all ſort of ſubordination. They were afraid my intention was to ſit in this cave all night (as it really was), and to viſit the others next morning. With great clamour and marks of diſcontent they daſhed their torches againſt the largeſt harp, and made the beſt of their way out of the cave, leaving me and my people in the dark; and all the way as they went they made dreadful denunciations of tragical events that were immediately to follow upon their departure from the cave.

'There was no poſſibility of doing more. I offered them money, much beyond the utmoſt of their expectations; but the fear of the Troglodytes, above Medinet Tabu, had fallen upon them; and ſeeing at laſt this was real, I was not myſelf without apprehenſions, for they were banditti and outlaws, and no reparation was to be expected, whatever they ſhould do to hurt us.

'Very much vexed, I mounted my horſe to return to the boat. The road lay through a very narrow valley, the ſides of which were covered with bare looſe ſtones. I had no ſooner got down to the bottom than I heard a great deal of loud ſpeaking on both ſides of the valley; and in an inſtant a number of large ſtones were rolled down upon me, which, though I heard in motion, I could not ſee, on account of the darkneſs; this increaſed my terror.

'Finding, by the impatience of the horſe, that ſeveral of theſe ſtones had come near him, and that it probably was the noiſe of his feet which guided thoſe that threw them, I diſmounted, and ordered the Moor to get on horſeback, which he did, and in a moment gallopped out of danger. This, if I had been wiſe, I certainly might have done before him, but my mind was occupied by the paintings. Nevertheleſs I was reſolved upon revenge before leaving theſe banditti, and liſtened till I heard voices on the right ſide of the hill. I accordingly levelled my gun as near as poſſible, by the ear, and fired one barrel among them. A moment's ſilence enſued, and then a loud howl, which ſeemed to have come from thirty or forty perſons. I took my ſervant's blunderbuſs, and diſcharged it where I heard the howl, and a violent confuſion of tongues followed, but no more ſtones. As I found this was the time to eſcape, I kept along the dark ſide of the hill, as expeditiouſly as poſſible, till I came to the mouth of the plain, when we reloaded our firelocks, expecting ſome interruption before we reached the boat; and then we made the beſt of our way to the river.'

The imagination is ſometimes amuſed by paſſing in review ſcenes and nations that are connected by identity of place.

Theſe caverns originally lodged the remote progenitors of the builders of the pyramids, and of the ſages whoſe wiſdom Greece admired and ſought. At a ſubſequent period they harboured the tribes of monks, the diſciples of Antony and Pachomius, and the firm adherents of St. Athanaſius. The reader may determine which of two claſſes of their poſſeſſors were the moſt worthy: the preſent banditti, who quit their dens at midnight to rob and murder the native or the ſtranger; or the holy ſwarms whom the trumpet of Tabenne called forth to decide, by the arm of violence, a theological controverſy, or precipitate an heretic from the patriarchal throne of Alexandria.

Our traveller's converſation with Shekh Nimmer ſhews addreſs; and the relief of his gravelly complaints by the lime-water he preſcribed, gave the Arabs a ſtrong prepoſſeſſion in his favour. At Syene he takes occaſion to review and criticiſe the meaſurement of the earth's circumference, attempted by Eratoſthenes. That city being, as he ſays, in latitude 24° 0′ 45″ north, the northern declination would evidently tend to produce a contrary error in his computation to that which really took place; the circumſtance of Syene and Alexandria not lying under the ſame meridian might eaſily have been allowed for, if Eratoſthenes had been acquainted with their difference of longitude. It would only have required a ſimple operation in plane trigonometry. Mr. Bruce might therefore have detected the cauſe of his error in exceſs, as to the circumference of the whole earth, in a miſtake of the diſtance between thoſe cities, which he muſt have ſuppoſed greater than it really is; for that part being taken too great, any multiple of it muſt have come out too great alſo.

Having deſcended the Nile to Kenné, he quits its banks to croſs the deſert of the Thebaid to Coſſeir on the Red Sea. He ſaw no veſtiges of a canal mentioned as cut from the river of Egypt to the Red Sea. The remark that the cultivated land here is not above half a mile in extent from the river, though the inundation reaches much higher, but has left no appearance of ſoil behind it, is ſingular, and contrary, we ſuppoſe, to what happens to all flooded lands.

The road of the caravan lay through an open plain, bounded by hillocks of ſand and fine gravel, perfectly hard, and not perceptibly above the level of the plain country of Egypt. There was not a tree, ſhrub, or herb, to be ſeen; not a veſtige of any living creature; neither ſerpent nor lizard, antelope nor oſtrich, the uſual inhabitants of the deſert: its thirſt was not refreſhed by water of any kind, nor was a bird ſeen to fly acroſs it. During the march, the caravan was joined by about twenty well-armed Turks from Caz Dougli near Caramania, whence

they ſuppoſe the Engliſh, *Angli*, to have come; and they claimed Mr. Bruce for their countryman.

We are not much inſtructed by our author's mineralogical obſervations; but the ſcience of foſſils was little advanced or cultivated when he left Europe. He mentions paſſing a mountain conſiſting of the *Verde antico* marble. Near Terſowey, he tells us, there is a large mountain, partly green marble, partly granite, with a red bluſh upon a grey ground, with ſquare oblong ſpots. He ſeems not to know the conſtituent parts of granite, nor that it does not aſſociate with marble in the manner he deſcribes. The following attempt to ſolve a difficulty ſhall not be withheld; but in this whole journey we regret our author's want of mineralogical knowledge, in conſequence of which there cannot be expected any preciſion in his terms, or accuracy in his information:

'About ten o'clock, deſcending very rapidly with green marble and jaſper on each ſide of us, but no other green thing whatever, we had the firſt proſpect of the Red Sea, and at a quarter paſt eleven we arrived at Coſſeir. It has been a wonder with all travellers, and with myſelf among the reſt, where the ancients procured that prodigious quantity of fine marble with which all their buildings abound. That wonder, however, among many others, now ceaſes, after having paſſed, in four days, more granite, porphyry, marble, and jaſper, than would build Rome, Athens, Corinth, Syracuſe, Memphis, Alexandria, and half a dozen ſuch cities. It ſeemed to be very viſible that thoſe openings in the hills, which I call defiles, were not natural, but artificial; and that whole mountains had been cut out at theſe places, to preſerve a ſlope towards the Nile as gentle as poſſible; this, I ſuppoſe, might be a deſcent of about one foot in fifty at moſt; ſo that from the mountains to the Nile, thoſe heavy carriages muſt have moved with as little draught as poſſible, and at the ſame time been ſufficiently impeded by friction, ſo as not to run amain, or acquire an increaſed velocity, againſt which alſo there muſt have been other proviſions contrived. As I made another excurſion to theſe marble mountains from Coſſeir, I will, once for all, here ſet down what I obſerved concerning their natural appearance.

'The porphyry ſhews itſelf by a fine purple ſand, without any gloſs or glitter on it, and is exceedingly agreeable to the eye. It is mixed with the native white ſand and fixed gravel of the plains. Green unvariegated marble is generally ſeen in the ſame mountain with the porphyry. Where the two veins meet the marble is for ſome inches brittle, but the porphyry of the ſame hardneſs as in other places.

'The granite is covered with ſand, and looks like ſtone of a dirty, brown colour. But this is only the change and impreſſion the ſun and weather have made upon it; for, upon breaking it, you ſee it is grey granite *, with black ſpots, with a reddiſh caſt, or bluſh,

* Does not grey granite always turn white as it decays?—Rev.

over

over it. This red ſeems to fade and ſuffer from the outward air, but, upon working or poliſhing the ſurface, this colour again appears. It is in greater quantity than the porphyry, and nearer the Red Sea. Pompey's pillar ſeems to have been from this quarry.'

An obſervation a little below, p. 189, obliges us to pauſe: there are wells of brackiſh water at Coſſeir; Mr. Bruce made this water drinkable, for experiment's ſake, by filtering it through ſand. It has been ſaid that the water of the ſea may be ſweetened by paſſing it ſucceſſively through filtering ſtones. In this caſe what becomes of the ſalt? If Mr. Bruce's experiments be accurate, may not the application of ſand to filtering be ſerviceable on ſhip-board, and in particular ſituations? It is not eaſy to underſtand what power attracts the diſſolved ſaline ſubſtance from the water; and the whole buſineſs would deſerve more particular inveſtigation. The brackiſhneſs may depend on a ſubſtance mechanically diffuſed through the water: in that caſe it would eaſily be ſeparated by the filtre.

The books which we already have of travels among the wandering Arabs are ſufficiently full of perſonal adventures and hair-breadth eſcapes. It was therefore our intention to have touched ſlightly upon ſuch as ſhould occur in Mr. Bruce; and in this part of his work they occur in abundance. The drunkenneſs of the boatman of the Nile, though a *Mahometan* ſaint; the ignorance of Friar Chriſtopher, who bled the Arabs with the inſtrument uſed by our farriers for horſes; his blunder about the beginning of the Ramadan, or month of faſting; the cowardice, villany, and malice, of Sidi Haſſan, the conductor of the caravan; the conſternation excited by a ghoſt among the ſailors on the Red Sea; are all delineated in full and ſtriking colours. From ſo many flowers we are tempted, contrary to our firſt reſolution, to pluck one and preſent it to our readers.

The following quotation will not require a commentary, if we premiſe that the caravan from Syene had brought into Coſſeir, to the terror of the natives and ſtrangers, a crowd of Ababdé Arabs; that an Howadat Arab, brought up the Nile by Mr. Bruce, had been ſeized by them, upon falſe information; that he generouſly mounted his horſe alone, ordering only two ſervants to follow him, with a view to reſcue the victim of their reſentment. When he had advanced above a mile into the ſands, the account thus proceeds:

'Upon my coming near them, ſix or eight of them ſurrounded me on horſeback, and began to gabble in their own language. I was not very fond of my ſituation. It would have coſt them nothing to have thruſt a lance through my back, and taken the horſe away; and, after ſtripping me, to have buried me in a hillock of ſand, if they were ſo kind as give themſelves that laſt trouble. However, I picked

picked up courage, and, putting on the beſt appearance I could, ſaid to them ſteadily, without trepidation, 'What men are theſe before?' The anſwer, after ſome pauſe, was, *they are men*; and they looked very queerly, as if they meant to aſk each other, What ſort of a ſpark is this? 'Are thoſe before us Ababdé, ſaid I; are they from Shekh Ammer?' One of them nodded, and grunted ſullenly, rather than ſaid 'Aye, Ababdé from Shekh Ammer.'—'Then Salam Alicum!' ſaid I, 'we are brethren. How does the Nimmer? Who commands you here? Where is Ibrahim?'

'At the mention of Nimmer and Ibrahim their countenances changed, not to any thing ſweeter or gentler than before, but to a look of great ſurpriſe. They had not returned my ſalutation, *peace be between us*; but one of them aſked me who I was? 'Tell me firſt,' ſaid I, 'who that is you have before?'—'It is an Arab, our enemy,' ſays he, 'guilty of our blood.'—'He is,' replied I, 'my ſervant. He is a Howadat Arab; his tribe lives in peace at the gates of Cairo, in the ſame manner your's at Shekh Ammer does at thoſe of Aſſouan.—I aſk you, Where is Ibrahim your Shekh's ſon?'—'Ibrahim,' ſays he, 'is at our head; he commands us here. But who are you?'—'Come with me, and ſhew me Ibrahim,' ſaid I, 'and I will ſhew you who I am.'

'I paſſed by theſe, and by another party of them. They had thrown a hair rope about the neck of Abdel Gin, who was almoſt ſtrangled already, and cried out moſt miſerably for me not to leave him. I went directly to the black tent, which I ſaw had a long ſpear thruſt up in the end of it, and met at the door Ibrahim and his brother, and ſeven or eight Ababdé. He did not recollect me, but I diſmounted cloſe to the tent door, and had ſcarce taken hold of the pillar of the tent, and ſaid *Fiarduc* *, when Ibrahim and his brother both knew me. 'What!' ſaid they, 'are you *Yagoube*, our phyſician and our friend?'—'Let me aſk you,' replied I, 'if you are the Ababdé of Shekh Ammer, that curſed yourſelves and your children if you ever lifted a hand againſt me or mine in the deſert or in the plowed field: if you have repented of that oath, or ſworn falſely on purpoſe to deceive me, here I am come to you in the *deſert*.'—'What is the matter,' ſays Ibrahim; 'we are the Ababdé of Shekh Ammer, there are no other; and we ſtill ſay, Curſed be he, whether our father or our children, that lifts up his hand againſt you, in the deſert or in the plowed field.'—'Then,' ſaid I, 'you are all accurſed in the deſert and in the field, for a number of your people are going to murder my ſervant. They took him, indeed, from my houſe *in the town*; perhaps that is not included in your curſe, as it is neither in the *deſert* nor the *plowed field*.' I was very angry. 'Whew!' ſays Ibrahim with a kind of whiſtle, 'that is downright nonſenſe. Who are thoſe of my people that have authority to murder and take priſoners while I am here? Here, one of you get upon Yagoube's horſe, and bring that man to me.' Then turning to me, he deſired I would go into the tent and ſit down;

* That is, I am under your protection.

'for

'for God renounce me and mine,' says he, 'if it is as you say, and one of them hath touched the hair of his head, if ever *he* drinks of the Nile again.'

'A number of people who had seen me at Shekh Ammer, now came all around me; some with complaints of sickness, some with compliments; more with impertinent questions that had no relation to either. At last came in the culprit Abdel Gin, with forty or fifty of the Ababdé who had gathered round him, but no rope about his neck. There began a violent altercation between Ibrahim and his men, in their own language. All that I could guess was that the men had the worst of it; for every one present said something harsh to them, as disapproving the action.

'I heard the name of Hassan Sidi Hassan often in the dispute. I began to suspect something, and desired in Arabic to know what that Sidi Hassan was, so often mentioned in discourse; and then the whole secret came out.

'The reader will remember that this Arab, Abdel Gin, was the person that seized the servant of Hassan, the captain of the caravan, when he was attempting to steal the Turk's portmanteau out of my tent; that my people had beat him till he lay upon the ground like dead; and that Hussein Bey, at the complaint of the Caramaniots, had ordered him to be hanged. Now, in order to revenge this, Hassan had told the Ababdé that Abdel Gin was an Atouni spy, that he had detected him in the caravan, and that he was come to learn the number of the Ababdé, in order to bring his companions to surprise them. He did not say one word that he was my servant, nor that I was at Cosseir; so the people thought they had a very meritorious sacrifice to make in the person of poor Abdel Gin.

'All passed now in kindness, fresh medicines were asked for the Nimmer, great thankfulness and professions for what they had received, and a prodigious quantity of meat on wooden platters, very excellently dressed, and most agreeably diluted with fresh water from the coldest rock of Terfowey, was set before me.'

The subsequent part of this book contains Mr. Bruce's navigation of the Red Sea, in a boat of which the sail drew up like a curtain; whence, in blowing weather, the vessel must either overset or be dismasted. Without attending him step by step, which would require the accompanying map, we shall touch upon the most interesting of his observations and discussions. He first lands at the mountain of emeralds, finds shafts or pits, into which he does not venture. He picks up some worn fragments of *brittle green crystal*, which could not be the emerald on account of their softness. But we are here again rendered mistrustful of the accuracy of his remarks by an expression which seems to imply very imperfect knowledge of fossils. 'Pomet,' says he, 'assures us that the emerald is 'formed in iron, and says he had one to which iron ore was 'sticking. If this was the case, the finest emeralds should not 'come from Peru, where, as far as has ever yet been discovered,

'there

'there is no iron.' But ſurely no mineralogiſt will doubt that Peru affords iron to colour and imbed minerals.

The obſervations p. 223 on the way by which large ſhips may ſafely enter the gulf of Suez, recommend themſelves to the notice of navigators, who will undoubtedly conſider them with the map before them, and alſo with Niebuhr's map and obſervations in his deſcription of Arabia. Our author employs ſeveral pages on the paſſage of the Iſraelites through the Red Sea; but Niebuhr's 23d and 24th plates and remarks will be more ſatisfactory. As to the ſpot, both travellers ſeem agreed that it was at Kolſum or Sues. Mr. Bruce, however, ſagaciouſly determines that this paſſage being a miraculous one, we have nothing to do with natural cauſes; and if we do not believe Moſes, we need not believe the tranſaction at all, ſeeing that it is from his authority alone we derive it. He is glad, however, to bring a paſſage of Diodorus Siculus in ſupport of it. According to a tradition of the Ichthyophagi, derived from the very earlieſt ages, 'once this *diviſion* of the ſea did happen there, and, after leaving its bottom ſome time dry, it again came back, and covered it with great fury. The words of this author are of the moſt remarkable kind. We cannot think this heathen is writing in favour of revelation. He knew not Moſes, nor ſays a word about Pharaoh and his hoſt; but records the miracle of the diviſion of the ſea in words nearly as ſtrong as thoſe of Moſes, from the mouths of unbiaſſed, undeſigning pagans.' Edifying as this confirmation of the Greek compiler may appear, we are ſorry to obſerve that, on this occaſion, Mr. Bruce's zeal tranſcends his diſcretion and critical acumen, as any one who will read the paſſage alluded to muſt be convinced. Diodorus only ſays that the ſea retreated, and left bare part of its bed, and that it returned ſuddenly, ſo that there was a violent reflux and flux. Does Mr. Bruce make no diſtinction between the relation of Moſes and Diodorus? between the waters being piled up on either hand ſo as to leave a dry paſſage, and their retiring ſuddenly and then returning with violence; between a miracle, and a natural and ordinary occurrence the effect of an earthquake. The ſhores of Jamaica, Portugal, and many other countries, have experienced ſuch tremendous diſaſters as correſpond to the tradition preſerved by Diodorus Siculus: they are not only within the reach of authentic hiſtory, but the memory of perſons now living; but no mortal eye has beheld, and no profane hiſtorian, we believe, has related ſo entire a ſubverſion of the nature of fluids as favoured the eſcape of ſix hundred thouſand followers of Moſes.

The name of the Red Sea he derives from Edom, which in Hebrew ſignifies red: and the people of Edom, or Idumæa, he

he calls its once powerful maſters. The origin of names, however, is generally obſcure; they were beſtowed in conſequence of the looſeſt and wildeſt analogies. Thoſe we underſtand may make us deſpair of the unknown. If we had not been informed that the Ægean Sea derived its name from an imagined reſemblance between the bounding of its waves and of goats, αιγες, what etymologiſt could ever have traced this ſtrange coincidence of ideas.

The deſcription, the plans and views given by Niebuhr of the various ſea-ports on this ſea are ſo inſtructive and ſatisfactory, that hardly a gleaning is left for other travellers: we can only, perhaps, expect an account of the ſubſequent variations of ever-fluctuating commerce; though we find little to this purpoſe in the preſent work. The reader's chief entertainment muſt be derived from the author's perſonal adventures. The incident at Jidda is truly dramatic. Our author, weary, ſick, and meanly accoutred, is carried, at his own deſire, to one of the captains at the Bengal houſe in that city, a *Scotchman*, as he ſays in italics, a *relation of his own*. On being ſaluted, the captain called him *villain*, *thief*, *cheat*, *renegado raſcal*, and threatened to throw him over the ſtairs. He is then taken to Captain Thornhill:

'He looked very ſteadily, but not ſternly, at me; and deſired the ſervant to go away and ſhut the door. 'Sir,' ſays he, 'are you an Engliſhman?' I bowed. 'You ſurely are ſick; you ſhould be in your bed; have you been long ſick?' I ſaid, 'Long, Sir,' and bowed. 'Are you wanting a paſſage to India?' I again bowed. 'Well.' ſays he, 'you look to be a man in diſtreſs; if you have a ſecret, I ſhall reſpect it till you pleaſe to tell it me; but if you want a paſſage to India, apply to no one but Thornhill of the Bengal merchant. Perhaps you are afraid of ſomebody; if ſo, aſk for Mr. Greig, my lieutenant, he will carry you on board my ſhip directly, where you will be ſafe.'—'Sir,' ſaid I, 'I hope you will find me an honeſt man; I have no enemy that I know, either in Jidda or elſewhere; nor do I owe any man any thing.'—'I am ſure,' ſays he, 'I am doing wrong in keeping a poor man ſtanding who ought to be in his bed. Here! Philip! Philip!' Philip appeared. 'Boy,' ſays he in Portugueſe, which, as I imagine, he ſuppoſed I did not underſtand; 'here is a poor Engliſhman, that ſhould be either in his bed or his grave; carry him to the cook, tell him to give him as much broth and mutton as he can eat; the *fellow* ſeems to have been ſtarved; but I would rather have the feeding of ten to India than the burying of one at Jidda.'

The effect of this tranſaction is heightened by the Vizir's diſappointment on finding the Grand Seignior's firman, letters to the Sherriffe of Mecca and his miniſter, in Mr. Bruce's boxes, which the Vizir opened at the hinges, with a view to pilfer them.

The mode of making bargains by the India brokers, who ſit down on the carpet, ſpread a ſhawl over their hands, and con-

verſe on indifferent topics, till they have ſettled the price of the richeſt cargoes by the touch, is curious.

Mr. Bruce, p. 280, ventures on the ſlippery queſtion of polygamy. But it may juſtly ſurpriſe the reader that he ſhould chooſe to contend only with ſo old a writer as Arbuthnot. His opinion is that polygamy in Arabia is favourable to population. He pretends to ſhew that more females are born between the equator and 50° than males; the proportion, according to him, varies in different countries of the Eaſt, between 2 : 1 and 4 : 1. He found this by inquiry from individuals. Now Niebuhr's imperfect liſts, and the analogy of all places where accurate regiſters are kept, are directly contrary in point of fact. Mr. Bruce thinks the queſtion, Whether one man and one woman, or one man and four women, ſhall have moſt children, needs no diſcuſſion. Niebuhr declares it to be the reſult of his obſervations that monogamy is moſt prolific, and aſſigns a very natural reaſon, which we muſt not tranſcribe, but the reader may find p. 76, orig. ed. of the Deſcription of Arabia. The Daniſh traveller adds, that in the Eaſt polygamy is much leſs frequent than Europeans imagine; moſt people of low and middling rank, a comprehenſive title, having only a ſingle wife, and many of the opulent but one.

It cannot be expected of one who has ſpent his life in gratifying ſo very different, yet a very honourable kind of curioſity, that he ſhould have collected and ſtudied the ſcattered information concerning the origin and hiſtory of the Arabs. Yet Mr. Bruce imprudently inſerts a commentary on Gen. xvi. 12. the famous prophecy concerning Iſhmael, forgetful perhaps that a writer by profeſſion had already anticipated his demonſtration of the truth of revelation by the independence of the Arabs. (Univ. Hiſt. Vol. XX.)

Among the obſervations that are ſuggeſted by Mr. Bruce's excurſions on the Red Sea ſeveral deſerve notice. The remarks p. 357 on the neglected treaſures of the bottom of this ſea ſeem extremely judicious. He ſuggeſts to the Eaſt-India Company that a ſettlement on the river Frat would open to them a market both for fine and coarſe goods, from the ſouth frontiers of Morocco to Congo and Angola, and ſet the commerce of pearls and tortoiſe-ſhell on foot again. The myrrh, the frankincenſe, ſome cinnamon, and variety of drugs, are all in the poſſeſſion of the weak King of Adel, an uſurper, tyrant, and *pagan*, without protection, and willing to trade with any ſuperior power that would ſecure him a miſerable livelihood.

Theſe and other ſuggeſtions to navigators and merchants appear to be the reſult of good ſenſe, informed by the ſurvey of the ſituation and productions of the places viſited by the writer. Happy if he had diminiſhed his work by omitting his diſcuſſions and ſhortening the detail of his own adventures. Foreigners will complain

complain that he did not imitate the accuracy of Niebuhr in giving the names of places in the Oriental as well as European character. The confuſion that ariſes from the different power of letters cannot be too carefully avoided.

For the preſent we take leave of our adventurer at Maſuah, whence he is to begin his Ethiopian expedition. We hope to trace the annals of Abyſſinia in our next number, which will carry us to the end of the fourth, from the beginning of the ſecond book.

ART. II. *Gallery of Portraits of the National Aſſembly; ſuppoſed to be written by Count de Mirabeau. Tranſlated from the French.* 8vo. 2 vols. 6s. boards. Robinſons. London, 1790.

WHEN we reflect on the late unlooked-for revolution in what we have been accuſtomed to call a rival kingdom; ſee men, hitherto only anxious for the grandeur of an individual, with one conſent ſtrip him of all but his trappings; hear them demand rights one almoſt wonders their language retains a name for; when we view a nation of frivolity and etiquette gravely canvaſſing the moſt important points, and deſtroying that order which we fancied almoſt eſſential to their exiſtence; we are forced to admit the weakneſs of the obſervations of politicians, and the inſufficiency of philoſophical ſpeculations. In vain has the man of humour laughed, the wary Fabius dreaded, and the ſceptic doubted; the operation of ſecond cauſes exhibits an event that delights every true patriot, and aſtoniſhes all the world. Whence! we exclaim as if recovering from a deluſion, whence this liberality of ſentiment in a nation of prieſts? this cry for liberty which pervades even the army itſelf, this language of the natural equality of mankind in the face of the moſt powerful ariſtocracy that ever oppreſſed the true ſtrength of a community? Nor is this all—during the long period of Gallic humiliation, when all the bolder energies of the mind were checked, we were in the habit of ſuppoſing one national trait characteriſed every individual, or that to have ſeen one was to have ſurveyed a nation. We are forced either to reject our hypotheſis, or to ſuppoſe every individual endued with political knowledge ſufficient to direct an empire under the moſt critical of all circumſtances. At ſuch a time can an object be preſented more gratifying to the mind than the portraits of thoſe characters who have been moſt inſtrumental in theſe important changes, and by whoſe induſtry and talents the new commonwealth has not proved the total annihilation of order. We need not repreſent the difficulty that muſt attend every attempt at acquiring an impartial deſcription of ſo many and ſuch elevated perſonages. Few could be found hardy enough to undertake it. The Count de Mirabeau, of a character perhaps the moſt intricate, but of talents at leaſt equal to any, is reputed the author of the work before

us;

us; and there is sufficient internal evidence to give more than a colour to such a conjecture. Distant as we are from the scene of action, and recent as many of the originals appear on the political horizon, it would be presumptuous to sit in judgment on many of them, we shall only observe in general that we cannot help wishing the impartiality of the noble author had been equal to his talents. That though the work abounds with the best chosen expressions, the most glowing colourings, and most pointed epithets, yet there is discoverable throughout a disposition to lessen every popular character; and, where there can be no competition from the mediocrity of talents, an affectation of candour, a readiness to heighten virtues which scarcely exist, and to bring forward abilities which were never before suspected. Could neither the laudable warmth of juvenile patriotism, the well-known and well-tried courage, the disinterested conduct, and the manly firmness at the most trying period, procure the Marquis de la Fayette one solitary encomium? Grant that his abilities are inconsiderable in the cabinet, that he is greedy of popular applause, and that he has exhibited more boldness than conduct in his various enterprises; is there any thing in these that should lessen our esteem for urbanity of manners, genuine benevolence, and the most active exertions in what he conceived the best of causes! But let our readers judge:

'PHILARETAS.

'*(The Marquis de la Fayette, Commandant of the Militia of the City of Paris.)*

'Philaretas, finding that he had all on a sudden become a hero at a very cheap rate, conceived that it would be equally easy to pass himself for a statesman. There is no war at present, and in the interim he has turned politician. Nature has organised him no better for an orator than she had formed him for the school of Mars; but, in spite of nature, he has declaimed just as he conquered.

'The misfortune of Philaretas is, to have great pretensions and trite ideas. He has undertaken to protect the cause of liberty; not that he feels any vocation in her favour, not that he wishes to foster and assist her; but he hopes, by taking the side of the least numerous party, to be better observed; and, if he be condemned to be silent at Paris, at least he is determined to be known in the country, where he raves like one possessed.

'Philaretas has had the ingenuity to persuade himself that he is the author of the American revolution; and accordingly he prepares to be one of the prime actors in the revolution of France. He mistakes clamour for glory; the surprise of a cottage for a martial victory; the compliment of a sword for an undecaying monument; the language of ceremony for the breath of immortal fame; the routine of promotion for the reward of virtue; and the display of constitutional valour for the consummation of heroism.

'He loves not the court, because he feels himself a stranger to it; he loves not society, because every man is there confined to his

niche; he loves not the sex, because, if they do not lead to fortune, they subtract from reputation. On the other hand, he loves clubs, because there one gathers up the ideas of other men, to produce them, upon a proper occasion, as our own; he loves foreigners, because they are not very strict and scrupulous in anatomising us; he loves fools, because they are contented to listen and admire.

'Philaretas is no author; because to the character of an author there are required argumentation, disquisition, style. The world judges of authors with severity. Are they frigid? they are despised; do they commit mistakes? they are laughed at. But in conversation here is rather desired than accuracy, and ornament than depth. The man of accurate distinctions is there treated as a pedant; and to reason ill is essentially necessary to him that would converse agreeably.

'Philaretas will remain faithful to the party he has chosen, without being very able to assign to himself the reasons for that fidelity. He knows not the full meaning and force of the word constitution; he knows not the degree of power that must necessarily be reserved to the executive authority. But the word 'liberty' lights up in him the train of ambition; and he will endeavour to know what to do with it when he thinks he has got it.

'He formerly attacked a minister in disgrace* with as little malice as he now displays discernment. Persons at first imagined that some great project was about to disclose itself, and that extraordinary discoveries would speedily be made. No such thing. Philaretas was in no sort vindictive, and he possessed no information. He thought of nothing but of filling with his name the mouths of the coffee-house orators, and reflection came too late to remind him that the character of the unfortunate is regarded as sacred by the man of true delicacy.

'What can such a man as Philaretas do in a national assembly? Neither good nor harm. His opinion will exactly coincide with that of the majority of his party. There is a set of people totally incapacitated to think for themselves; they have just the ability to defend the opinion that another has dictated to them, and no more; and they secretly do themselves the justice to believe that they should too frequently tarnish their reputation if they adhered faithfully to their own dubious and uncertain reflections.

'Such is Philaretas. He deserves a sort of renown because he has surpassed the majority of his rivals. Perhaps he is himself unacquainted with the reason of the indulgence he has obtained. It is, that he has done a great deal with the humble means with which nature furnished him. The world has applauded in him what he desired to be, and not what he was. Beside, he has the exterior of modesty; and connoisseurs only know what opinion to form upon that article.

'The outlines of his military reputation are only sketched, and the first war that occurs must decide upon its value. His reputation

'* M. de la Fayette produced an impeachment against M. de Calonne in the Assembly of Notables, in April 1787, a few days after his dismission from office.

as a ſtateſman is finiſhed and complete. He will never go beyond what we have already ſeen him. Scanty of invention, of art, of energy, and of lungs, and ever on the hunt after petty ſucceſſes, the dimenſions of his cloſet are the exact counterpart of the dimenſions of his mind.'

Though the following partakes, in ſome meaſure, of the ſame levelling diſpoſition we before accuſed the author of, yet it abounds with ſo many ſtrong and judicious aphoriſms, not immediately connected with the character, that we cannot but offer it to our readers:

'STEPHANO.

'*(Mr. Rabaud de Saint Etienne, one of the Miniſters of the French Proteſtant Church.)*

'Stephano writes in an agreeable and intereſting ſtyle; he ſpeaks with ſweetneſs and eaſe; but he is by no means a man of reflection, ſtill leſs a ſtateſman, and leaſt of all a philoſopher. He conceives nothing conſiderable or ſublime, but he makes his advantages of circumſtances as they occur. He has not become an author from the love of his country; he has merely written a book. With him the benefit of the ſtate and his own individual advantage go hand in hand; and, if no favourable revolution occur in government, he at leaſt hopes for a revolution in his private affairs. Does any one ſpeak of Stephano? We are ready to join in his applauſe. Is it Stephano himſelf with whom we converſe? We ſecretly condemn the precipitation of our judgment.

'Every curate longs for a benefice; every abbé wiſhes to be a biſhop; every biſhop deſires a cardinal's hat: and every cardinal aſpires to the papal chair. Do the principles of our ſect exclude us from theſe honours? We ſubſtitute the name of a patriarch for that of a pope. For whom ſhall this office be created, if not for a zealous politician, who preaches againſt vaſſalage juſt as he preached againſt popery?

'Stephano is unlike the majority of his cloth, becauſe he loves toleration as much as they love the principles of excluſion and monopoly; whether it be that one of the religions is really leſs mild than the other, or that the religion of the minority has been ſo long humbled, as to aim at nothing but deliverance from its preſent degradation. Stephano, the pillar of proteſtantiſm, does not, like his haughty rivals, reſt his feet upon a footſtool of gold, and bear his head higher than the clouds.

'In almoſt all bodies of men officious mediocrity gains more victories than a decided genius. Genius, confident in its advantages, employs the tone of deſpotiſm and abuſes its rights; mediocrity confeſſes its own weakneſs, propoſes its ideas with modeſt heſitation, and ſeeks rather to earn than to arreſt the ſuffrages of mankind. In flattering the vanity of the great we make ourſelves acceptable to them, and in ſoothing the weakneſs of the ignorant vulgar we incline them to our opinion.

'Stephano uſhered in his perſonal appearance by the publication of a book. This book tells us nothing that we did not know before.

But it has collected in one point of view what was said in books of disquisition and discovery. The mind of man, ever disposed to indolence, is grateful to him that spares it the labour of research and furnishes a chain of popular reasoning that we may repeat with eclat to a set of auditors less enlightened than ourselves.

'Stephano has a portion of genius, though not of that sort which is equal to the present situation of France. But the habit of commenting upon, and illustrating the ordinary topics of theology, wears out the understanding, consumes our valuable time, and weakens the energies of the intellectual faculty. Why should we deny that the national assembly has dwelt too much upon the minuteness of detail, and that the passion of displaying oratorical powers has spun out and procrastinated the decision of principles? Of all the men who enter those walls, Stephano would be most puzzled to exculpate himself from this accusation.

'The existence which he desires is in the opinion of mankind. First a missionary, then an apostle, last of all a pontiff, he aspires to another sort of glory. We pretend not to assign the exact bounds of his success. At any rate he has succeeded in rescuing his name from the level of the obscure multitude, and ranking it among those of the acknowledged coadjutors of the present revolution; a revolution respecting which no one can fix the precise period when it will take place, and few can even tell whether it will take place at all.

'If we had not said that we are wholly silent on the article of probity, because we take it for granted that it belongs to the whole assembly, we should be bound in all justice to do homage to the probity of Stephano.'

But let us see how the supposed author describes himself:

'I R A M B A.

'*(Count de Mirabeau, Author of Considerations on the Order of Cincinnatus; Doubts respecting the Navigation of the Schelde; Disquisitions on the Bank of St. Charles, on the Water-works of Paris, and on the the Caisse d'Escompte; Impeachment of the Stock-jobbers; Thoughts on Lettres de Cachet; on the Office of Stadtholder; on the Prussian Monarchy; Secret History of the Court of Berlin, &c. &c. &c.)*

'Iramba would have been one of the most useful men that ever existed if his unruly passions had not always been at war with his genius. Like the bee, he extracts honey from every thing around him, without the baseness of theft, or the infliction of injury. He resembles those rivers that, in their majestic course, receive the tribute of a thousand streams, and the diversified wealth of every neighbouring mountain; and then pour into the ocean with an expansion of surface that is at once astonishing and sublime. Controversy animates Iramba, and gives new energy to his mind. Ardent and vigorous, he draws out the latent force of his adversary. The antagonist excels himself, collects all his powers and qualifications, and employs every expedient of artifice and conviction. Iramba listens, reflects, is instructed; he either defeats his opponent with his own weapons, or passes quietly on and reserves them for a more important occasion.

'He

'He is preſent at a debate: the diſputants adhere ſcrupulouſly to the arts of logic, and inquire little after the dictates of perſuaſion. Diffident of their own capacity, they have recourſe to the aids of authority and the deductions of hiſtorical fact. Iramba purſues the train of their reaſoning, rejects with contempt their limping and ſlow-paced method, ſcans with a penetrating eye the facts that are ſtated, obſerves their true bearings and inference, and maſters in an hour what muſt elſe have coſt him the ſtudy of a day.

'There are men, laborious in calculation and remark, that have never aimed to acquire the art of explaining their obſervations. There are others to whom nature has given the faculty of diſcovery and invention, but who have not the ſecret of enlightening the underſtandings of others. There are perſons who prefer perſpicuity and elegance to the grand and the ſublime. Iramba eſtimates each man at his juſt value, hears them all, and reproduces their ideas animated with the ſplendour of eloquence. Each man recogniſes his own method of conſidering the ſubject, but he finds that method embelliſhed, and he does not dare to complain.

'Men's minds are as various as their faces. This man takes his departure from a ſingle idea; but he modifies it in a thouſand ways, he applies it to a thouſand ſubjects, he builds upon it a ſyſtem of the moſt extenſive application. That man has a ſtrict and ſevere logic, he connects diſſevered principles, he hangs upon them important conſequences, he conſtantly gives to the truth he would inforce the moſt irreſiſtible evidence. A third is gifted with a continual flow of uſeful conceptions that he brings in as a tribute to the general weal; he enlarges his talent by the honeſty of his zeal, and he inforces his zeal by the reſpectability of his eloquence. Still another has made mankind his ſtudy, in the world, in books, in the midſt of important action; habituated to contemplate, he ſees the characters of men under all their different appearances; endowed with a felicity of deſcription, he paints the moſt ſtriking likeneſſes. Iramba identifies himſelf with theſe four perſonages; he appropriates their faculties, he increaſes them from his own ſtock, he appears a Coloſſus. There are many men in Iramba, but you never ſee any thing but himſelf. Surely he who poſſeſſes the talent of engroſſing human underſtanding is entitled to fill the firſt ſituation! Accordingly his rivals yield to him the palm, and are contented to occupy the ſecond place.

'The herd of writers, echos of the unreflecting multitude, deny that he is entitled to all the merit of his performances. An error, if ever there was one. He conceived them all; he reared them all. The architect has indeed the columns formed to his hands, he does not paint the ceilings, he does not execute the ornaments of the building; but he drew the plan, he laid out the apartments, he choſe the ſpecies of the decorations; it is he that built the palace, the workmanſhip of which is praiſed, or the defects of which are criticiſed. It has been ſaid that all compariſons have their weak ſides; I aſſert of the preſent, that it is complete in all its parts.

'Iramba does not ſet either his pen or his opinion to ſale. He follows exactly the oppoſite maxim, he puſhes it as far as it will go,

and it is on that ſide perhaps that his moral character is moſt vulnerable. It is worth while to attend to the explanation of this curious feature. He believes that the ſecret of gaining men to your ſide and extorting their ſuffrages, is, to be always in the right; and, for that purpoſe, to utter upon all occaſions the exact truth. He adopts this method by ſo much the more willingly, becauſe no project can be more intereſting or more new than that of ſpeaking truth. But this ſecret, evidently important as it is, leads to the moſt alarming conſequences. It not only arms againſt you a whole hoſt of enemies, but it leads to the perpetual violation of gratitude and friendſhip. He who profeſſes to conceal nothing that may be uſeful to the multitude, muſt neceſſarily reveal the manœuvres of thoſe who are only rich becauſe other men are ignorant. Take, for example, the book entitled *Denonciation de l'Agiotage* (Impeachment of the Stockjobbers); the maxim of ſpeaking truth in this inſtance involved the ruin of two hundred individuals. In this number there were credulous perſons, perſons drawn in by the power of circumſtances, perſons intimately connected with the friends of their deſtroyer. In this pitileſs office he diſobliges friendſhip, violates the decorums of ſociety, and ſacrifices his own feelings of gratitude at the ſhrine of that auſtere truth, which is ever inexorable, and diſdains to parley with the affections and charities of human ſociety. To make myſelf ſtill better underſtood, I will ſuppoſe that Iramba had written a book like the Secret Hiſtory of the Court of Berlin*; he would have thought of but one object, the inſtruction and illumination of his conſtituents; he would have imagined that the conſideration of humbling the vanity and ſelf-importance of individuals was of no weight, in compariſon with the neceſſity and indiſpenſibleneſs of truth; an apprehenſion of this ſort would not have ſtopped him for a moment. He gratified no enmity againſt any individual; he ſaw nothing in them but mediums for the inculcation of truth. It may be perceived, from theſe illuſtrations, to what lengths the principle of exhibiting truth in all its evidence may eaſily lead.

'It is ſo true that Iramba is irritated, tormented with this propenſity, that he of conſequence neglects extremely the gratification of perſonal revenge. What would become of a maſs of pigmies if Hercules raiſed up his club? Would ſo much as a trace of his adverſaries remain upon the field of battle, if this Achilles deſcended into it in his celeſtial panoply?

'Amidſt the unruly paſſions that quartered themſelves upon his youth, after an adoleſcence, deſerted and untrained by a father too eagerly occupied by his own fame to lay the foundation of that of his ſons, and by a mother who was continually buſied in odious diſputes with her own ſervants; commenced thoſe frequent follies that rendered too conſpicuous a young man, whom the ardour of his paſſions and the effervescence of the ſublimeſt talents converted into a ſort of prodigy. Driven to extremity by the ſeverities of a father

* One of the moſt extraordinary and intereſting political productions of the preſent age.

buſied

busied in inventing the means of repairing his errors, embarrassed to discover ways of supporting the dignity of his birth, a circumstance upon which a young man lays an extraordinary stress, it was easy that he should lose himself in the road to happiness. The enemies of Iramba discovered in that stormy period a long series of errors. The philosopher will study it, that he may observe how the same man, whom passion blinds in the first instance, afterwards finds in himself the power of escaping from the labyrinth in which the love of pleasure entangled him; in how great a degree the mistakes of the heart furnish pretences to malignity, and diet for calumny; and how far circumstances change the character of actions. There is a chain that connects oversight with imprudence, imprudence with error, error with the breach of propriety, the breach of propriety with miscarriage, miscarriage with injustice, injustice with guilt, guilt with profligacy, and profligacy with all that is enormous. Iramba sought to be agreeable, he found himself beloved, he undertook to seduce, he consummated his design, he ravished the conquest he had made from the vengeance of jealousy and the arms of power. In the eye of the law this was a rape, a crime; in the eye of morality it was unjust; in that of philosophy it was a delirium, excused by the fever of love and the violence of an inflammable period of life.

'He that would judge fairly of Iramba must forget the multitude of false calculations and inconsiderate procedures of which he has been at once the actor and the victim; must recollect that he has been punished with a severity, that he has been treated with an unkindness, beyond all example; must allow that few men are endowed, like him, with a disposition ardent to improve, as well as prompt to abuse every thing; and must confess that this volcano has thrown out a substance capable of being greatly useful to a nation. Misfortune, or rather the occasion to struggle against it, has given him fortitude and courage; the necessity of defending his character has taught him the art of public speaking, and made him an orator; compulsory solitude, and the hope of beguiling the hours of retreat, have converted application and the art of improving the hours of leisure into habit.

'His principles are sound and moderate, and, when considered as a system, their truth will be found irresistible. I apply to them the name of *moderate* for the instruction of those who confound warmth of expression and passionateness of judgment. He is even capable of an unlooked-for composure in the midst of popular violence. It is but little suspected that he is one of those men over whom true genius, real ability, has the greatest ascendancy. He estimates lightly enough literati, an academician, the laborious constructor of pompous nothings; but he conceives an involuntary and a deep respect for him who has resources in his own mind, and who has improved real talents by the acquisition of useful knowledge.

'An incontestible proof of a great mind is to be found in this circumstance, when a man attaches himself to one object, and renounces every other species of glory. This is to demand no small sacrifice, especially from men of extensive capacity, and at a period, when, to obtain the verdict of renown, it is necessary to prefer a clear

and indiſputable title. Iramba himſelf will ſee, in this firſt ſitting of the States-general, that, if he have been the firſt to ſeize upon the palm of eloquence, he has rivals that will aſpire to a ſhare in the prize.

'He aſſociates in his literary labour minds of too feeble a texture. Philoctetes was the companion of Hercules, becauſe wherever Hercules was not, Philoctetes was a hero. Diomedes was worthy to enter the liſts with his Achilles. But a S——, an N——, and an N——*, are not qualified even for the ſuite of Iramba. He becomes enthuſiaſtic in a man's favour, and his officious imagination blindly aſcribes to him qualities, the want of which his ſounder judgment ſpeedily detects.

'Iramba has not always been judged with this impartiality. Peace to their libels! Who would move the excrements of this infectious ſink, and expoſe himſelf to the exhalations? But a pamphlet has appeared, in which a celebrated painter has delineated in the true ſtyle this man, who forces his enemies to hear him, if he do not force them to be ſilent.'

If we thought our readers were not tired of this panegyric, in which there is hardly an attempt at diſguiſing the deſign of drawing a perfect character, we would preſent them with a note almoſt as long as the text. Let the following quotation ſerve as a ſample of the whole:

'Nothing is more rare than a man of true force and elevation; nothing is more rare than the union of theſe qualities with induſtry and application; nothing is more rare than to join to a comprehenſive intellect and profound ſcience an unalterable courage, a complete ſuperiority to the allurements of the world; nothing is more rare than to add to theſe extraordinary requiſites an ardent and impetuous eloquence, that ſubjugates the opinions of mankind; . . . nothing is more rare'——

than to hear a man exhauſt a language, replete with brilliancy, of every ſtrong expreſſion in praiſe of himſelf.

Happy nation! to poſſeſs an hero whoſe only *moral failing* is an *irreſiſtible love of truth!*—We need hardly obſerve how artfully the *Impeachment of the Stockjobbers* is tacked to the *Secret Hiſtory of the Court of Berlin*, that the motive to each publication might ſeem the author's *exalted failing*. But was it this irreſiſtible attachment to truth that made him dive into the myſteries of the Pruſſian court, recommend himſelf to Prince Henry and others, under the guiſe of friendſhip, and immediately afterwards publiſh their weakneſſes to the world. Is it by an

* Perſons concerned in the Courier de Provence, a New's Letter, publiſhed by Mirabeau. The author in the preceding ſentence has confounded Diomedes and Patroclus.

unbounded

unbounded love of truth, which can bend to nothing, that men acquire the confidence and penetrate into the secrets of others? and does this same *weakness* induce them, after having betrayed this confidence, to assert that their only motive for it was—to instruct and illuminate their constituents?

The second volume is of a later date, as may be traced by the superior confidence the writer expresses of the permanency of the new constitution. It is introduced by a most ingenious apology for private *caricaturing*; not merely as it is connected with public acts, when directed against public characters, but because where the description is unjust 'the criticisms that point out where the 'likeness is deficient, themselves supply what the first perform-'ance wants. The remarks of the author, and the remarks 'he extorts from others, will complete the instruction of him 'who examines the portrait.' This is certainly just with regard to public measures, because all are so much interested in them that they will continue to inform themselves, till by degrees truth finds its way through every labyrinth and perplexity. But will it not often happen that the character of an individual shall be calumniated by a lively and witty writer who well understands the taste of the town, while the answers, though they may bring conviction to the few that read them, will be too spiritless to become popular, and, the subject being temporary, shall die before the truth is discovered? Or, which is more common, may not the calumny be *conveyed* in a vehicle that reaches every one, while the solitary answers are only *announced* to every greedy peruser of a fable that would be no longer interesting if it were known to be false. In this introduction the author hints at an intention of giving portraits of the ladies. But here again his *amiable weaknesses* expose him to the danger of 'partiality for that delightful and all-commanding sex, that 'has indeed many faults, but that has still a greater number of 'those features, which we might censure without being guilty 'of calumny, but which it might be still easier to praise without 'the imputation of flattery.' We need not observe how excusable this failing of our author's will be in the meridian of Paris.

The portraits in this second volume are drawn in the same masterly style as the former, and, on the whole, liable to fewer exceptions. The following of a well-known character will be interesting to many of our readers, and has indeed much to recommend it:

'CLITOPHON.

'*(Cardinal de Rohan, Archbishop of Strasbourg.)*

'Clitophon has trusted to a venerable name to adorn him with glory, and has sought to arrive at fortune by the flowery path of pleasure. He had that sort of capacity which is graceful at twenty-five,

five, and ridiculous at fifty. There is a period in human life when thoughtlessness partakes of activity and candour; there is a period when it is the sad result of an abortive understanding.

'Nothing is more injurious than a considerable name unaccompanied with considerable qualifications; than high offices without ability to fill them; than an elevated rank without that dignity which should adorn it.

'The mind of Clitophon is not only destitute of useful information, but is crowded with false ideas; illusion there fills the place of truth; a vulgar credulity is the substitute of religion.

'He had a place at court which might have fixed the desires of his ambition if he had not possessed it. He made every sacrifice to obtain another, which for his glory he ought to have abandoned, if it had ever been bestowed upon him. The secret for Clitophon to be something was for him to do nothing; the same moment that saw him active saw him contemptible.

'The profession we have chosen must always determine the degree of strictness that ought to characterise our manners. We laugh at that action in one man which we execrate in another. Human society is sufficiently indulgent; but it forbids, under pain of contempt, a certain publicity in our relaxations.

'Misfortunes that are occasioned by imprudence excite our pity; misfortunes that are caused by intrigue may excite a momentary sensibility, but quickly leave us cold and indifferent.

'The life of Clitophon has been divided into three acts: in the first we saw him slight and superficial; in the second, intriguing; in the third, icy and unfeeling. Amorous as a grenadier, ostentatious as a farmer-general, speculating as an adventurer, he found in his commerce with the sex mortification and contempt, in his dependents hypocritical knaves, and in his speculations ruinous law-suits and the loss of reputation.

'It is the common-place and undiscriminated character that is equally callous to favours and to affronts; that receives in exactly the same style the quack and the man of science; that amuses itself with vice, and employs virtue as its resource; that has a few slavish dependents, but never has a friend; that forgets in the arms of beauty the pangs of exile; whose affability is cowardice; whose generosity is ostentation; whose religion is terror; who regards labour as the greatest of evils, and would prefer the basest obscurity to the efforts necessary to restore an injured reputation.

'Clitophon is for ever telling us that he is sick of mankind; yet mankind has done every thing for him, and what has he done for them? In the last instance they have summoned him to the august assembly, that is the arbiter of our future destinies. Let Clitophon embrace the rights of the people and the cause of liberty; let him by disinterestedness, by eloquence, and by courage, impose upon his enemies an eternal silence respecting the past, and give his partisans a right to restore its reputation from its ashes!

'Let him restore to the state that immense wealth which the poor must share if the state did not exert itself for the extirpation of poverty; and let him by a life of honourable simplicity expiate the luxury of thirty years! [Let him discard the hoary flatterers that surround him, and

and that build their varying projects and their ambitious hopes upon his insatiable vanity and his unconquerable indolence!

'Alas! there is a period in human life when the soul loses all its elasticity. There is a decay in our moral, as well as in our natural faculties. All that remains is the memory, or at most the transient glimmerings of capacity; and in those cruel moments we feel at once what we ought to do, and our inability to execute it. In the air of a court the man usually ceases to exist as soon as he arrives at manhood. What remains for him to do? To be beneficent in his decay. Thanks be to nature, there is need neither of talents, nor effort, nor application, in order to do good!

'Clitophon will devote his last moments to the exercise of religion. The readiness of his faith in things supernatural, the veneration with which he is impressed for the marvellous *, sufficiently shew the fate that awaits him. He must have a good sort of piety, full of superstition, as before a sprinkling of miracles, and the usual promise of penetrating successfully into the darkness of futurity; futurity, the scare-crow of feeble minds, whose desire is to lose nothing of this world, and to secure the happiness of another.'

The last sentence seems rendered obscure by an error of the translator or printer.—The following of the Duke of Orleans every good man will hope is a just portrait:

'CLEMON.

'*(Duke d'Orleans.)*

'A youth of voluptuousness did not promise to the cause of liberty so zealous a defender and so valuable an apostle. There are faults that are less our own than those of the times in which we live. The close of the reign of Louis the Fifteenth held out an invitation to pleasure. Austerity was out of place in a community where gratification reigned without control. Clemon yielded to the circumstances in which he was placed; the age dictated to him, and he obeyed it. He found that it deserves the name of calamity to be endowed in early youth with an insinuating character.

'The desire of comparing two rival nations conducted Clemon repeatedly to the banks of the Thames. He desired to be thoroughly acquainted with the two countries in Europe which have reached the highest degree of civilisation; which are indeed full of defects, imperfect in their government, but decidedly superior to every one of their neighbours. He perceived that it is their emulation that gives nutriment to their industry, and that enables them always to equal, never to surpass each other. He saw that the situation of the individual was not more desirable in one country than in the other, and that, exclusively of the criminal jurisprudence, there was little that France need envy *to* Britain.

'She has preceded us in the adoption of liberty, and it was doubtless with her that Clemon imbibed the generous principles that have electrified the nation. He professed them at a period when it was unknown what reception Frenchmen would give them, and when it

* The author here alludes to his connexion with Count Caglioſtro.

was

was impoſſible to foreſee that, victors over prejudice, they would ſucceed at their firſt attempt in placing themſelves upon an equality with the nations that have diveſted themſelves the moſt ſlowly of the veſtiges of tyranny. Let us recollect the documents that he ſanctioned with his name, and that encouraged the bailliages to form their inſtructions upon ſo excellent a model!

'I do not commend Clemon becauſe he gained the affections of the people, but becauſe he preſerved their attachment. To the former it ſufficed to awaken the partiality of the citizens for this popular branch of the Houſe of Bourbon; but to the latter there was requiſite a conqueſt over himſelf, and that of no common ſpecies. Clemon has friends in ſpite of his rank, becauſe he is himſelf the friend of thoſe whom he admits into his familiarity. His dependents are contented and happy; for when our ſervices are unconſtrained, our duties convert * into pleaſures.

'Clemon is generous; the people have derived from him ſuccour and relief, men of letters have been benefited by his patronage; and the animoſity of a few individuals, who were irritated by the loſs of an agreeable promenade †, has been well exchanged for the applauſes of Europe. Foreigners of all countries are agreed that there is no edifice that preſents ſuch a combination of wealth, conveniences, and delight. You may here find luxury and ſimplicity, ſolitude and diſſipation, the amuſements of the open air and theatrical entertainments, the tranquillity of clubs, and the tumultuous ſcenes of a coffee-houſe. Theſe different views of ſocial life have all of them their pleaſures, perhaps all of them their utility.

'It is ſo much the more agreeable to praiſe Clemon in a certain reſpect, becauſe his country has not flattered him. He ſerved it with the air of a man who was paying a debt. What is a campaign, what is the gain of a battle, in compariſon of whatever may forward, may determine, may complete a revolution?

'Wars depopulate a ſtate; virtuous examples may alter its character; the courage of the heart may advance them to a degree of ſplendour that the moſt brilliant conqueſts could never beſtow.

'Clemon choſe a ſingular method to conduct his children to the moral goal that he had marked out for them. It required no deep philoſophy to inſpire the attempt, and ſucceſs has attended upon its execution. Why ſhould not a woman of intellectual ability, of ſound knowledge, of fervent zeal, form the minds of young princes to the love of virtue, and unfold in them the talents that Nature implanted?

'He foreſaw the ſacrifices which his paper of inſtructions would render it neceſſary for him to make; and he has advanced a ſum

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* [*Themſelves*] or *become pleaſures*. This is a very remarkable error in the tranſlator, becauſe the verb is never uſed in a neutral ſenſe in the Engliſh or French languages.

'† The alluſion here made is to the gardens of the Palais Royal, which have been covered with buildings by the Duke d'Orleans, and conſtitute at preſent the moſt beautiful ſpot in the city of Paris. The neighbourhood was at firſt diſſatisfied with the loſs of their recreation, but have ſince conſidered it as a mall of a different form.

greatly

greatly beyond the tax that the neceſſities of his country impoſed upon him.

'It will hardly be believed that Clemon has not gained the unanimous ſuffrage even of the party whoſe boaſt it is to have followed his principles. The cauſe of his moderation has eſcaped the eyes of the vulgar; and it has not been conſidered that if he had been more ardent in his meaſures, he would have had the air of labouring for himſelf, and not for the public cauſe. 'But do you know that Clemon ——?' No: I know nothing; I believe nothing. If ever the dreaded light ſhould force my eyes to ſee differently, I ſhall curſe the moment in which I drew this portrait.'

We very much regret our limits will not allow us to give larger extracts of this valuable performance, the whole of which we have peruſed with a degree of ſatisfaction, though ſometimes mixed with indignation. In the laſt portrait the author pretends to give his own character. The only thing that ſhould induce us to ſuppoſe he had any ſuch intention is that the epithets are more feeble, and the language leſs intelligible, than in any other part of the book. But we may fairly conclude, firſt, that ſuch a character as there deſcribed never could have produced ſuch a work; and, ſecondly, that no one but himſelf would have drawn ſuch a portrait as is preſented of the Count de Mirabeau.

The tranſlation has evident marks of haſte, but on the whole is not badly *got up*. We wiſh we could ſay as much of the tranſlator's introduction, in which he has ſomehow unaccountably fancied that his author has aimed at impartiality, of which, in our opinion, it would be difficult to diſcover the moſt diſtant traits. He further expreſſes a ſurpriſe that the Abbé Reynal ſhould not be one of the National Aſſembly, when it is well known that, though warmly ſolicited, he excuſed himſelf from that important truſt on account of his years and infirmities. But what moſt aſtoniſhes us is, that the tranſlator ſhould ſeem to admit the Marquis de la Fayette among thoſe who are altogether deſtitute of ability; when, from our own perſonal knowledge, we can aſſert the imputation is as unjuſt as it is malicious and deſigning.

ART. III. *He would be a Soldier; a Comedy in Five Acts. As performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. Written by Frederick Pilon. Dedicated to Mrs Montague. The Third Edition.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinſons. London, 1787.

Although an account of this comedy has already appeared in our Review, the reader perhaps will think there is little apology neceſſary for the inſertion of the preſent article when he is informed that it was written by the late Rev. Mr. Logan.

MR. Pilon tells us, in his preface, that this comedy was preſented to Mr. Colman in the courſe of laſt ſummer, and returned—becauſe *that gentleman did not like a line of it.* To render

render this polite deciſion ſtill more comfortable to the feelings of the writer, Mr. Colman added, he did not know *what could be done with it, or in what ſhape it could be produced ſo as to contribute to the entertainment of the public.* By the advice of a friend Mr. Pilon ſhewed his piece to Mr. Harris, who, equally to the ſurpriſe and the pleaſure of the author, entertained a very different idea of the comedy, and brought it on the ſtage, where it was received with great applauſe. Complaints of authors againſt managers, and of managers againſt authors, are neither new nor ſurpriſing. When we recollect that Cibber reprobrated the Beggar's Opera, and that Garrick rejected the tragedy of Douglas, we will not be inclined to believe in the infallibility of managers. But although their taſte and judgment were more unqueſtionable than is proved by experience, there are ſo many motives of intereſt, ambition, and jealouſy, not to mention caprice, that may influence the breaſt of a theatrical dictator, that no author need be ſurpriſed or mortified at the rejection of his play.

This drama is partly a comedy of incidents, and partly of character. The incidents, though by no means uncommon on the theatre, are arranged and connected in ſuch a manner as to create an intereſt and have a happy effect on the ſtage. Nor are the characters ill delineated or ſupported. Sir Oliver Oldſtock and his lady, though they have not the merit of being originals, are excellent copies. Crevelt is well drawn. Caleb is the moſt diſtinct and beſt marked figure in the piece; but his character belongs to farce rather than to comedy.

As a ſpecimen of this performance, we ſhall preſent our readers with the laſt ſcene. Colonel Talbot, before his departure to India, had left his ſon, by a private marriage, to the charge of Wilkins, an innkeeper. The youth went into the army at the age of twelve, and was no more heard of. On the return of Colonel Talbot, Wilkins, dreading the reſentment of his patron, preſented his ſon Caleb to the Colonel inſtead of his own. His wife, from reſentment, diſcovered the miſtake:

'*Enter* Crevelt, Mandeville, Charlotte, Harriet, *Sir* Oliver, *Lady* Oldſtock, *and Count.*

'*Crev.* Dear Sir, what is the matter? Obſerving a confuſion in the houſe immediately after you went in, we were alarmed for your ſafety.

'*Col.* Oh, Crevelt! I am the unhappieſt of fathers; that creature whom you all ſuppoſe my ſon, is not ſo.

'*Char.* Good fortune be praiſed!

'*Col.* He's ſon to the fellow who keeps this houſe.—He ſays my poor child ſtrayed from him when a boy; but this tale is ſo improbable that I rather fear he has fallen a victim to this fellow's villany and avarice.

'*Crev.*

'*Crev.* Dear Sir, compoſe yourſelf, and hope human nature cannot be ſo depraved; it wrings my heart to ſee you in this diſtreſs. But who is this villain?

'*Col.* His name is Wilkins. When I committed my child to his care he lived at Henly; he pretends he loſt him at twelve years old; and, O! agony to think! if he indeed be living, he is at this moment a wandering outcaſt and a beggar.

'*Crev.* Merciful heaven! What do I hear? Can it be poſſible! Shall I, in my loved and honoured patron, find a fond and living father? Sir, did that man loſe a ſon of your's at twelve years of age?

'*Col.* Yes, Crevelt; I have no ſon but you now.

'*Crev.* I am your ſon, Sir—your happy ſon; that ſon you loſt.

'*Col.* You! you, Crevelt!

'*Crev.* Yes, Sir; the veteran, whoſe name I bear, took me with him at the age you mention from Henly, where I lived with the man you have juſt named, whom I always thought my father; it was the pride of poor Crevelt's heart to have me believed his ſon; I bore his name, and publicly acknowledged him as my father; for you, Sir, could not have loved me better; his dying requeſt to me was, ſtill to retain the name of Crevelt, and never forget the man who made me a ſoldier.

'*Col.* My ſon! my ſon! The hand of Providence has ſurely directed every circumſtance of your life; you were brought to me a ſtranger and a child; I became your parent by reſiſtleſs inſtinct; in battle once I owed my life to you, and now a ſecond time you ſave it.

'*Char.* O, Harriet! There is a chord of delight in my heart never touched before; and ſure he who made that heart, now moves its ſprings to ecſtaſy by the finger of an angel.

'*Col.* He talked of your taking with you a picture of your mother—had you ever any ſuch thing?

'*Crev.* I have it ſtill, Sir, and ever wore it next my heart: (*Producing the picture from his boſom*) You ſee the frame is ſhattered; it was by a muſquet ball the day every body thought I was killed.

'*Col.* It is indeed your mother; and ſee here thoſe ſpecks under the eye; are they my child's blood, or the tears of a fond parent?

(Johnſon *to* Caleb *without.*) You muſt not come in; I have already explained every thing ſufficiently.

'*Enter* Caleb (*very abruptly*) *and* Johnſon.

'*Caleb.* I tell you I will come in: zounds! will nobody father me?

'*Col.* Young man, you have been deceived; you are Wilkins's ſon, not mine.

'*Caleb.* Pho, pho! Father, do you think I know no better?

'*John.* If you don't come out this moment, and no longer diſturb my maſter, I'll take you by the ſhoulder.

'*Caleb.* Why here's a fellow for you—forgets he is talking to a captain!

'*Col.* That is a rank you are so utterly unfit for, that it would only expose you to unhappiness and ridicule; therefore your commission shall be sold; and, for being one day my son, the purchase money shall be appropriated to setting you up in business.

'*Johns.* Well, what keeps you now?

'*Caleb.* You are in a devil of a hurry, Mr. Johnson: I find I must put up with old Jacob again; but let me ask you one question, An't I to be entitled to half-pay for my services?

'*Johns.* You shall have full pay if you don't go about your business. [*Shakes his cane at him*]

'*Caleb.* Well, if I can't be a half-pay captain I'll be a no pay captain—for once a captain and always a captain. [*Exit* Caleb.

'*Sir Oliver.* Captain Crevelt—I beg your pardon, Captain Talbot; give me your hand; you want nothing now but a wife, and if my daughter Charlotte——

'*Count.* Eh bien! Monsieur Chevalier, you have forgot?

'*Sir Oliver.* Why no, Count, I have not forgot; but you must know, whatever my respect for you may be, there is not that man living whose alliance I so much desire as Colonel Talbot's; besides, I understand there is another branch of the family of my mind.

'*Count.* Chevalier, I love and I respect the English, and by gar me vil have a wife among you.

'*Mand.* It is not in words to express my pleasure—to make a bosom friend, and find a near relation, in less time than others form a common acquaintance, overflows my heart with transport.

'*Lady Oldst.* I could wish also to shew this affecting discovery touches me, if I was not apprehensive, Sir Oliver, of your unfortunate suspicious temper.

'*Sir Oliver.* Captain Talbot, be so good as to step this way.—Do give my wife a kiss; I know, my dear, your lips itch for it; and, with all her faults, believe me she has a heart that beats in unison to the feelings of all present, and a tear for misery and friendship.

'*Col. Tal.* Miss Oldstock, it is your father's wish and mine to unite our families—now that I have a son I can propose to you, there is only your acceptance of him necessary to make me happy.

'*Char.* Why, Sir, if the gentleman has but courage to speak for himself—

'*Sir Oliver.* As I don't expect the pleasure of contradiction from either party on this occasion, I'll join their hands *(joining their hands)*, without waiting for an answer—there—Colonel, you are now one of my family.

'*Col. Tal.* That assurance, Sir Oliver, seals and completes my happiness—you, Mandeville, shall share a portion of my fortune as a son; and may happiness still wait on you and your lovely Harriet. And now *(addressing the audience)*, if this court martial, to whom we appeal, acquit us with honour, I shall bless the hour my boy said, 'He would be a soldier.'

Although this drama cannot be classed as a genteel comedy, it possesses no small share of theatrical merit. Wit is seldom attempted, elegant nature seldom exhibited; yet, from well-

well-choſen ſituations and comic painting, the *toute enſemble* is intereſting and agreeable. The prevailing fault of modern comedies is, that they are crowded with incidents, and too much calculated for ſtage effect. When the intereſt of ſo many perſons is involved in one piece, and the ſcenes are perpetually ſhifting, nothing takes a ſtrong hold of the mind of the ſpectator; and there is no room for that gradual developement of character, and fine diſplay of paſſion, which delights us.

The ſtyle of this comedy is ſometimes poetical and inflated, and ſometimes below the ſtrain of polite converſation.

ART. IV. *A Sermon, preached before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal in the Abbey Church of Weſtminſter, on Saturday, January* 30, 1790, *being the Anniverſary of King Charles's Martyrdom. By John, Lord Biſhop of Carliſle.* 4to. 1s. Cadell. London, 1790.

IN this elegant little compoſition his lordſhip, after hinting at the various evidences which are conſtantly before us of a particular providence, reminds his audience of the ſolemn occaſion of their aſſembling on that day. This gives him an opportunity of introducing a ſhort hiſtorical detail of the tranſactions of the period alluded to. After admitting, with much candour, that, in the beginning of his reign, Charles ſhewed a diſpoſition to ſtretch the royal authority beyond its due limits, he proceeds to trace the ſteps by which the revolutioniſts of thoſe days carried their oppoſition much farther than at firſt intended, or than was conſiſtent with the intereſt of the more moderate and honeſter part of them. Some pertinent obſervations are added on the danger of innovations, and the advantages of ſubmitting to a few inconveniences rather than run the hazard of untried experiments; and the whole concludes with the moſt forcible incentives to a virtuous life.

ART. V. *Thoughts on the Diſqualification of the eldeſt Sons of the Peers of Scotland to ſit from that Country in Parliament. With Obſervations on the Civil Polity of the Kingdom. By Alexander, Lord Saltoun, Advocate and F. S. S. A. The Second Edition.* 8vo. 5s. boards. Cadell. London, 1789.

LORD Saltoun, after making many pertinent obſervations on the conſtitution of the Scottiſh parliament, and the origin of repreſentation in that country, proceeds to inquire how far

the natural rights of the eldeſt ſons of peers were affected by the act which paſſed in the year 1587, when the general attendance of the leſſer barons was firſt diſpenſed with in the public conventions of the kingdom. 'Previouſly,' ſays he,

'To 1587, c. 114, when the repreſentation of the leſſer barons was eſtabliſhed, the eldeſt ſons of peers could have ſat in parliament, not as eldeſt ſons of peers, but as *tenentes in capite* of the crown; provided they were in poſſeſſion of eſtates held independent of their fathers or other intermediate ſuperiors. Nor is there a ſingle act of the Scottiſh parliament by which, when qualified according to the repreſentation eſtabliſhed by thoſe acts above mentioned, they are excluded from the right of ſitting in parliament. In what ſituation then are they placed? and to what claſs of citizens do they belong? Are they comprehended in the rank of prelates and lords of parliament? All other barons and freeholders are appointed to attend in future by *repreſentation*. Did the obligation, then, of their perſonal attendance remain? And, after that period, were they entitled, with their fathers, to an hereditary ſeat? Yet they are held to be diſqualified from electing, or being elected into parliament from Scotland.'

Another act of parliament, viz. that of 1661, is afterwards the ſubject of the noble lord's inveſtigation. By this act a right of voting at the elections of the commiſſioners, or to be elected as ſuch, was given to all freeholders of the king to a certain extent, excepting always from the act, *all noblemen and their vaſſals*.

His lordſhip obſerves it is impoſſible to reduce the eldeſt ſons of the great barons, in all ſituations, within the meaning and the reach of this clauſe of diſqualification, by any fair conſtruction. By the term *noblemen*, in the act above referred to, is clearly underſtood the great barons or peers who ſat in parliament in their own right, who had not been diſqualified from voting at elections by the former acts of the legiſlature, appointing the repreſentation of the leſſer barons, and whoſe privilege of voting in the election of commiſſioners, ſince they themſelves ſat perſonally in parliament, it ſeemed proper to aboliſh. He farther obſerves, that, when vaſſals of the nobility, their ſons were undoubtedly excepted; but the term *noblemen*, in the act abovementioned, did not include any ſpecies of *tenants in capite* who did not ſit perſonally in parliament, and among whom the ſons of noblemen might juſtly be comprehended. In ſupport of this argument the noble and learned author thus proceeds:

'The conſtitution of Scotland had preſerved, at leaſt in criminal caſes, a trial by a jury of equals. If the eldeſt ſon of a peer of Scotland committed a crime, however the courteſy of the kingdom might

might have considered him as *noble*, he would not now be tried by the *peers*; for they are not his *pares curiæ*: he would be tried by a jury of commoners, perhaps indiscriminately chosen. And he was not formerly, in the construction of jury in that country, to be considered as among the *pares curiæ* of the peers in parliament, any more than of the lesser barons and freeholders. They sat mutually on each others juries; nor was the regulation, as in the trial of peers of parliament, that two-thirds of the jury should be *peers*, extended to their eldest sons. Why therefore extend that disqualifying expression of 1661, c. 35, to them? Nor is it sufficient to say that before the year 1587 they sat as *proxies* for their fathers. The rolls of the meeting of the estates in 1560, and of previous parliaments, evidently shew that they also sat in those meetings in the character of members, and as tenants *in capite*.'

By the acts of parliament which our author cites, it was provided that the expences of the parliamentary commissioners from the shires should be defrayed by the barons and freeholders represented; those only being excepted who held of noblemen and bishops, or lands belonging to boroughs royal in burgage. Lord Saltoun observes, it may perhaps be said that this exemption in favour of noblemen and their vassals afforded some colour of pretext for the exclusion of the eldest sons of the great barons from parliament. 'But, if so argued,' adds his lordship, 'when that obligation to defray the expences of the commissioners ceased, all shadow of that reason will fall to the ground. It is farther to be observed,' continues he, 'that a disqualification on the ground of exemption from the expences abovementioned, would have extended, by parity of reasoning, to their younger sons.'

'Neither is that reason of exclusion applicable to burghs royal; for their eldest sons being once created burgesses, and in possession of property within the burgh, would, *ipso facto*, have become liable to their proportion of the burgh stent (or tax) for defraying the expences of their parliamentary commissioners.'

Lord Saltoun appears every where to have examined this subject in the clearest light, and with the closest attention. He remarks, that in a very minute account of the parliament of Scotland, and its different form from that of England, given by Bishop Burnet, the very year when the act referred to was dated, in the History of his own Times, the incapacity of the eldest sons of peers to elect, or to be elected to parliament, is not so much as mentioned, either expressly or by implication.

The noble author having fully evinced that the ineligibility to parliament of the eldest sons of peers in Scotland rests on no disqualification by statute, observes that the only foundation which supports it, is two resolutions of the Scottish parliament.

ART. VII. *Political Tracts; conſiſting of, I. A Propoſal for the Liquidation of the National Debt; an Explanation of the Propoſal; in Appendix, containing a Narrative of Proceedings thereon at various public Meetings. II. The Efficacy of a Sinking Fund of One Million per Annum; the Propriety of an actual Payment of the public Debt; the true Policy of Great-Britain. The Concluſion. III. The Abolition of Tithes and the Reform of the Church Revenue; the Doctrine of Preſcription conſidered; a Narrative of Proceedings at a County Meeting held at Morpeth December 22, 1784, reſpecting the Payment of Tithes; a Letter to the Freeholders of the County of Northumberland on the ſame Subject. The Concluſion. By Sir Francis Blake, Bart.* 8vo. 5s. boards. Debrett. London, 1789.

SIR Francis Blake has for ſeveral years been a diligent labourer in the field of politics; and though he may not have written with much efficacy, it will be allowed, at leaſt, that he has with zeal, and we are perſuaded likewiſe with the beſt intentions towards the public. The preſent volume is a collection of tracts which have been publiſhed by their author at different times.

The firſt part treats of the liquidation of the public debt; concerning which we much fear that the method propoſed by Sir Francis would prove a greater temporary burden to the nation than even the debt itſelf. He propoſes that every proprietor of real eſtates and ſtock ſhould be aſſeſſed with a tax to the amount of four years income, in lieu of all taxes whatever. He thus ſpeaks of the advantages which would reſult from ſuch an expedient;

'The abolition of taxes will put an effectual ſtop to emigrations from this country, which, in the preſent poſture of our affairs, is a certain impending evil, threatening no leſs than the loſs of our liberty, and the ſubjugation of theſe kingdoms to a foreign yoke. Nay more, that it will in all human probability, occaſion ſuch an influx of people of all denominations from other ſtates, and of courſe ſuch an increaſe of wealth and ſtrength, as will enable us ſtill to hold up our heads among the mighty ones of the earth; and, by reſtoring us to the loſt dominion of the ſeas, make us riſe, *like a giant refreſhed with wine*, ſuperior to our diſtreſſes, and greater by our fall.'

It ſeems as if this tract had been written about the concluſion of the laſt war, when an apprehenſion of great emigrations to America was generally entertained, and Great-Britain had been unſucceſsful in her military operations. But we would aſk Sir Francis Blake when was the time that we did *not* 'hold up our 'heads among the mighty ones of the earth?' and when was it

it that we 'loſt the dominion of the ſeas?' To anſwer theſe interrogatories in a manner unfavourable to the dignity of the nation, will be found as difficult an enterpriſe as to liquidate the national debt.

The next tract is an Explanation of the Propoſal for the Liquidation of the National Debt. This tract is ſo much connected with the preceding, that to make any obſervation upon it might be deemed a ſuperfluous taſk.

The ſecond part treats of the Efficacy of a Sinking Fund of One Million per Annum. It is ſufficient to obſerve, that, in conſidering this ſubject, the author appears to have formed his opinion upon ſuch an eſtimate of public contingencies as the preſent ſtate of Europe affords no reaſon to expect, through a long ſucceſſion of years.

The tract immediately following relates to the Propriety of an actual Payment of the Public Debt. The truth of this propoſition is ſo evident that it can admit of no queſtion; and we are ſurpriſed that the author ſhould have given it a place among his political ſpeculations.

The next tract is entitled, The true Policy of Great-Britain conſidered. How far the author's ideas on this ſubject are well founded, the following extract, relative to the commercial treaty with France, may enable our readers to determine:

'Some men lay mighty ſtreſs upon commercial treaties, but we need them not. Abolith cuſtoms, and the commerce of the world is ours without their aid. At leaſt we ſhould not deal in ſuch a way with thoſe whom wiſdom has proſcribed. The maxim holds with many as with few; a nation, like a man, 'may ſmile and ſmile, and be a villain.' So ſmile our courtly neighbours acroſs the channel; and ſo let them ſmile, but let us not be duped thereby. They were our enemies, our ancient deadly foes; they are ſo ſtill, and will be ſo for evermore. To view them thus, we view them as we ought; and knowing them for foes, we likewiſe know to what we have to truſt, and therefore wiſely ſtand upon our guard. But taking them for friends, it is poiſon that we take which puts us paſt the power of caution. Our moſt inveterate foes made ſeeming friends, the conſequence will be, this unſuſpecting nation will turn traitor to itſelf; that is, we ſhall not watch at all, or we ſhall ſlumber when we ſhould be watching.—O! then, my gallant countrymen, beware in time! Remember Troy! Invincible by arms, it fell by wiles; ſo you ſhall fall by this ſame hollow treaty. To let them merchandiſe and ſettle here, you give admittance to the *Trojan horſe*. Remember too the ſerpent in the tale, which they will copy, if you give them leave, and help the moral by your ſad example.'

The third part treats of the Abolition of Tithes and the Reform of the Church Revenue. In this tract, beſides the total abolition of tithes, the author propoſes likewiſe the abolition of

all eccleſiaſtical ranks in the ſtate, the pariſh prieſts and the prelates only excepted.

It would be unneceſſary for us to give any more particular account of this volume. The author diſcovers a ſtrong taſte for inquiry, much patriotic ardour, and not a little eccentricity, in his various ſpeculations.

ART. VIII. *A Diſcourſe on the Love of our Country, delivered on Nov. 4, 1789, at the Meeting-Houſe in the Old-Jewry, to the Society for commemorating the Revolution in Great-Britain. With an Appendix, containing the Report of the Committee of the Society; an Account of the Population in France, and the Declaration of Rights by the National Aſſembly of France. The Third Edition, with Additions to the Appendix, containing Communications from France, occaſioned by the congratulatory Addreſs of the Revolution Society to the National Aſſembly of France, with the Anſwers to them. By Richard Price, D. D. LL. D. F. R. S. &c. &c.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell. London, 1789.

FROM good men, independent by the integrity of their hearts and the moderation of their wiſhes, nothing is to be apprehended but a too great warmth of zeal, however laudable. If an uniform uprightneſs of conduct, a conſtitutional diſintereſtedneſs, a punctilious exactitude of moral and religious duties, joined to a depth of learning and an original boldneſs of thinking, can elevate a character, Dr. Price muſt be ever conſidered as entitled to the higheſt rank. When to theſe we add a modeſty of deportment, an unſuſpicious ſimplicity, and a conſtant deſire to promote the happineſs of individuals and ſociety at large, we are almoſt at a loſs to conceive how any productions from ſuch an author can be leſs than perfect. But perfection is not the lot of human nature! and in ſuch characters we are to look for failings in the extreme of their virtues.

We ſhall not enter into the inquiry whether political ſubjects are proper for the pulpit; but if every thing connected with morality comes within that deſcription, ſurely political inquiries form no inconſiderable part. But the occaſion required an oration rather than a ſermon; and in this light we ſhall conſider the work before us.

The firſt thing our author undertakes to prove is, that the love of our country, though a laudable paſſion when properly directed, may degenerate into a dangerous vice. This is illuſtrated by a variety of inſtances: and it is ſhewn that a virtue ſo much applauded in ancient Rome, and ſo frequently boaſted of in modern times, is no where inculcated by our Saviour. The reaſon

reason given by the Doctor is, that in our Saviour's time such a doctrine would have been highly injurious to the general interests of mankind from the peculiar situation of the Jews, Romans, and other nations. But he might have recollected that the present state of England threatens no danger to the warmest advocates in favour of the love of our country; and that perhaps the inculcating such a passion might have a tendency to teach individuals to prefer the public good before their own emolument, rather than to injure other nations for the aggrandisement of their own.

Our author next considers the great sources of national wealth, which he comprehends under TRUTH, VIRTUE, and LIBERTY. On the first he is not only persuasive, but eloquent, from the animation with which this subject inspires him. The second, being a self-evident proposition, requires no reasoning. Under the practice of virtue is included an attention to public worship. We shall not inquire how far this is confounding the means with the end, because we admit the propriety of the injunction. But surely less severity might have been sufficient on the subject of our national church, whose opinions were at one time pretty universal in every enlightened part of Christendom, and are at present adopted by too many honest and well-informed men to be called *absurdities*. We would remind the Doctor too that when he laments that the consequences of our establishment are to drive some to scepticism and others to methodism, that the former are not precluded from the exercise of any kind of religion that is best adapted to their own mind; and the opinions of the latter are those of the very establishment which is said to force them into dissensions. Thus if it should be said on one side that, by admitting a larger latitude in the discipline and service of the church, a considerable body of dissenters would be swallowed up in the establishment, may it not be urged on the other that by far the greater part of the dissenters (the methodists) would be farther than ever removed from the national worship. From this last class too we may fairly urge the impossibility of forming a church that would receive all believers; for though, as we before observed, the articles and service of our Church are precisely what the methodists profess, still restlessness after novelty will not keep them from conventicles, from running to and fro after popular preachers; in a word, from a nominal dissent from the church as by law established.

On the subject of *liberty* it is impossible not to admire the honest zeal of this well-meaning preacher. It is, however, in many respects by far the most exceptionable part of the work; but as it has been taken notice of by more than one writer

whose performance will come before us, we shall suspend what we have to say on the subject at present. The Doctor next traces the progress of the revolution that placed the present family on the throne, shews the advantages this country has derived from it, but laments that we still have to complain of some very serious grievances. These are principally the *test act* and our *inadequate representation*. So much has been written on both, that instead of wearying our readers with discussing either, we shall only lay before them the Doctor's pathetic conclusion of this part of his discourse, which we trust no one can object to.

'But, brethren, while we thus shew our patriotic zeal, let us take care not to disgrace the cause of patriotism by any licentious or immoral conduct. Oh! how earnestly do I wish that all who profess zeal in this cause were as distinguishable by the purity of their morals as some of them are by their abilities; and that I could make them sensible of the advantages they would derive from a virtuous character, and of the suspicions they incur, and the loss of consequence they suffer, by wanting it. Oh! that I could see in men who oppose tyranny in the state, a disdain of the tyranny of low passions in themselves, or at least such a sense of shame, and regard to public order and decency, as would induce them to *hide* their irregularities, and to avoid insulting the virtuous part of the community by an open exhibition of vice. I cannot reconcile myself to the idea of an immoral patriot, or to that separation of private from public virtue which some think to be possible. Is it to be expected that——But I must forbear. I am afraid of applications, which many are too ready to make, and for which I should be sorry to give any occasion.'

This serious address is followed by a few arugments to shew that though the love of our country makes no part of the Christian's creed, yet it is by no means inconsistent with a Christian's principles; that our Saviour loved his country and wept over it, though he knew how wicked a country it was, and how little he was likely to owe to it.

The whole concludes with a kind of apostrophe on the revolution in France, on which our author expresses himself like one warm with the subject, and anxious for TRUTH, VIRTUE, and LIBERTY, in every part of the globe. It is impossible not to feel some of the patriotic glow of this venerable zealot in the cause of liberty, and for a moment to overlook the disasters that have already happened in that country, and the uncertain issue of its present changes.

The contents of the appendix are expressed in the title-page.

ART.

ART. IX. *Observations on Dr. Price's Revolution Sermon.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale. London, 1790.

THE author of this little tract commences with shewing us that the only object of laws and government being the happiness of society, we need look no farther for arguments against the Doctor's proposed reformations than his own exultation on our present enviable situation. Afterwards briefly tracing the progress of government, and the manner in which each of the European states have insensibly fallen into that which is most congenial to their situation and other circumstances, he concludes this part of his work with some personal insinuations against the Doctor, and invectives against his sect, which we should not have expected from so judicious and well-informed a writer.

In speaking of the sermon, he shews the superior advantages England enjoyed by her revolution above what can be expected by the French, and contrasts the calmness and moderation and good temper with which it was brought about, against the serious calamities that have attended the still unfinished state of the latter. This leads him to the main point, in which he differs so materially from the Doctor:

'The great principle,' says our author, 'of this false philosophy consists in supposing that the highest refinement of abstracted truth is fit to be applied by all mankind to the offices of common life. It appears in almost every page of the sermon under different colours, and with varied forms of expression; but, upon the whole, we may pronounce it to be virtue pushed to an extreme, from whence results an evil different from, though equally great, with ignorance its opposite.

* * * * * * * * * * *

'It is hard to combat positions that come under such an assuming shape and appearance. There is little doubt, indeed, but that these maxims, clearing away human imperfections, are fairer in speculation than any that are now in use, as applied to common life; but then it must be remembered, that they are not fitted for action, that they are too finely spun for common eyes, and that they are therefore incompatible with the practice of mankind; though, as questions of science, they might well be discussed by such persons as could manage them with skill, since from discussions of that kind something useful may be struck out; even from materials that would be pernicious themselves in other hands. . . . . By attempting to remove the necessary ignorance of mankind, that generally displays itself in reverential wonder, we remove the shade from the light, and blast our eyes with its excess.'

After

After this our author expresses his apprehension that even the boasted advantages of the press, which has yielded so many blessings to mankind, have been counterbalanced by too much enlightening those whose chief happiness consisted in their ignorance:

'All our old prejudices, harmless and necessary, no longer exist. Those soft delusions that cheered us in our afflictions cheer us no more. The holly and the misletoe no longer garnish the hall of laughter and plenty: vain pageantry! even kisses under it are kissed no more; promoters of vice and unsubstantial pleasures that hang not on the lip! The same dry and unfeeling ideas are extended to other innocent frivolities, that are more interesting to the generality of mankind; and the mind is left bare to the cold impressions that reason may make upon it, while venerable errors are overturned, as the cathedrals of ancient days were overturned by the ravages of rebellion, and were exchanged for the *reasonable* convenience of a modern chapel.'

We have given this long extract because we could no way do justice to the author's arguments but by giving them in his own words. We are ready to allow this as ingenious an apology for keeping the vulgar in ignorance as ever we met with; and, without giving our opinion on the subject, shall leave our readers to form their own.

The rest of the pamphlet contains many sensible remarks on the Doctor's sermon, with more invective, however, than appears to us necessary. We are ready to give the writer credit for the best intentions; and charity induces us to extend the same to Dr. Price, how much soever we may differ from him.

ART. X. *The Philosophy of Natural History. By William Smellie, Member of the Antiquarian and Royal Societies of Edinburgh.* 4to. 1l. 1s. boards. Edinburgh, printed: sold by Cadell, London. 1790.

[*Continued.*]

THE subject of Chap. V. that of *instinct*, is curious and inexplicable. It has baffled all the efforts of those philosophers who would derive it from mere mechanism, and the modification of motion. Mr. Smellie considers, 1. *Pure instincts.* Instances of this will readily occur to the reader. Birds of the same species build their nests uniformly in the same manner. The solitary wasp digs holes in the sand, into each of which she deposits an egg. The mother, though she feeds not upon flesh herself, collects ten or twelve small green worms, rolls them

them up in a circular form, and fixes them in the hole in such a manner that they cannot move. Thus the young caterpillar is furnished with the food which nature destined for its support. 2. *Instincts which can accommodate themselves to peculiar circumstances and situations.* In the torrid climate of Senegal, the ostrich neglects her eggs during the day, but sits upon them in the night. At the Cape of Good Hope she continues the incubation during both day and night. Bees, when occasion requires, augment their cells. 'When a wasp, in attempting to 'transport a dead companion from the nest, finds the load too 'heavy, he cuts off its head, and carries it out in two portions. '—In countries infested with monkies, many birds, which in 'other climates build in bushes and the clefts of trees, disperse 'their nests upon slender twigs, and, by this ingenious device, 'elude the rapacity of their enemies.' 3. *Instincts improveable by experience and observation.* Instincts are original qualities of the mind, and are called into action by circumstances and situation. An infant spontaneously applies its lips to the nipple. A calf pushes, before its horns are grown. Instinct must be considered as an inferior species of reason, which can be improved by attention and application.

In Chap. VI, Mr. Smellie considers the *five senses*. The more immediate organ of *smelling* is the *pituitary membrane*, which is soft, vascular, and porous, covered with numerous papillæ, and totally invested with infinite ramifications and convolutions of nerves that are almost naked. All bodies in nature constantly emit effluvia, or emanations, from their substances, which float in the atmosphere, are drawn into the nostrils along with the air, and stimulate the olfactory nerves. These nerves are defended from acrid odours by the secretion of a thick insipid mucus. In the state of nature the sense of smell would alone be perhaps sufficient to guard us against poisons; but the refinements of cookery confound our sensations, and diminish their keeness. This feeling is more acute in some animals than in others. The dog, the fox, the raven, &c. possess it in a remarkable degree. The tongue and palate are the great organs of *tasting*. These are covered with nerves terminating in papillæ, which expand on the application of any sapid substance. This sense, if not vitiated, would assist us in the selection of wholesome food.—The organ of *hearing* is the ear. The canals are cylindrical, contorted, and become gradually smaller till they reach the *tympanum*, or drum. Sound is conveyed by the undulations or pulses of the air. In infants the sense of hearing is obtuse, because the bones of their ears are soft and cartilaginous, and the tremulations excited in these are weak. Hence children are extremely fond of noise.—The sense of *feeling* is diffused

diffused over the whole body, but it is more particularly acute on the skin, and especially at the tips of the fingers. The nervous papillæ, which are the organs of the sensation, seem to be capable of erection, upon the application of an external object. The sense of *seeing* is the most noble, and the most refined. The particles of light are emitted from luminous bodies in straight lines, and with inconceivable celerity. They are not originally homogeneous, but consist of seven different kinds. These singly convey the sensation of the red, the orange, the yellow, the green, the blue, the indigo, and the violet; and their various combinations furnish us with all our ideas of colour. The rays of light enter the pupil, pass through the aqueous, crystalline, and vitreous humours, are collected at the bottom of the eye, and form a picture on the *retina*, which is a fine expansion of the medullary fibres of the optic nerve. Mr. Smellie gives a view of Dr. Reid's theory of double and inverted vision, and of the method of estimating distance. He closes the chapter with an account of the Abbé de Condillac's *Traité des Sensations*; in which that author considers what would be the feelings and actions of man, if he possessed only one, or a certain number of the senses.

Chap. VII. treats of *infancy*. Savages, in general, discover more discernment and propriety of conduct in the management of their children, than nations who call themselves civilised. They are attentive to cleanliness, and encourage exercise. But, in refined society, the tenderness and prejudices of mothers often ruin the constitution of their infants. The northern nations plunge their new-born offspring into cold water. The Laplanders expose their infants on the snow till they are almost dead with cold, and then throw them into a warm bath. The time allowed for suckling varies in different societies. 'In Holland, 'in Italy, in Turkey, and over the whole Levant, children, 'during the first year, are not permitted to taste any other 'food. The Canadian savages nurse their children four or five 'years, or even six or seven.' In cases of necessity, recourse may be had to the milk of quadrupeds; but the children ought then to be obliged to suck the animal's teat, for the flow of the saliva is thus promoted, and digestion assisted.

Chap. VIII. treats of the *growth and food of animals*. The due mixture of animal and vegetable food is the most conducive to the perfection of the human species. The Gentoos, who are nourished by plants and milk alone, are in general a meagre and a feeble race. In the tropical regions the vegetables are more plentiful, more various, and more luxuriant, and form a principal part of the subsistence of the natives. The inhabitants of cold countries indulge more freely in animal food. There is no plant that is not useful to some of the quadrupeds; and even what

what is avoided by one as a poison, proves salutary food to another. Hence the diversity of appetites, for food is the great cause of the diffusion of animals over every part of the globe.

'Monkies, the elephant, and rhinoceros, fix on the torrid zone, because they feed on vegetables which flourish there during the whole year. The rein-deer inhabit the cold regions of the north, because these countries produce the greatest quantity of the lichen, a species of moss *, which is their beloved food. The pelican makes choice of dry and desert places to lay her eggs. When her young are hatched, she is obliged to bring water to them from great distances. To enable her to perform this necessary office, Nature has provided her with a large sac, which extends from the tip of the under mandible of her bill to the throat, and holds as much water as will supply her brood for several days. This water she pours into the nest to cool her young, to allay their thirst, and to teach them to swim. Lions, tygers, and other rapacious animals, resort to these nests, drink the water, and are said not to injure the young. The goat ascends the rocky precipice to crop the leaves of shrubs and other favourite plants. The sloth and the squirrel feed upon the leaves and the fruit of trees, and are therefore furnished with feet which enable them to climb.'

Insects that feed upon carrion always avoid living animals. Reaumur laid bare the thigh of a pigeon, and applied to it a slice of beef full of maggots. The insects discovered uneasiness, and those that remained on the flesh of the pigeon perished. Digestion is chiefly performed by the dissolving power of the gastric liquor secreted in the stomach. In granivorous birds the prodigious muscular action of the gizzard seems to co-operate. Fowls pick up small pebbles, probably to assist in the comminution of their food. But if the gastric liquor dissolves animal substances, why does it not corrode the coats of the stomach itself? Mr. John Hunter made a curious discovery, that it only acts as a solvent on dead matter. After the food passes the pylorus it is absorbed by the lacteals, and discharged into the sanguineous system.

The subject of Chap. IX. is the *sexes of animals and vegetables*. With regard to the sexes of animals, few observations occur. The distinction of sex is the bond of union among individuals, the basis of all the tender and benevolent passions, and the great source of all the pleasures of life. The male is generally distinguished by strength, vigour, and intrepidity. The constitution of the female is more feeble and lax, and the mind is more susceptible of the softer feelings, and less capable of steady exertions. Modesty is the virtue by which the females repel the rude assaults of the males, and it is the irresistible

* We are surprised to find our respectable author commit this oversight. The *lichen* or *liverwort* is entirely unlike the moss, and quite a distinct genus.

charm by which they ſtimulate the ardour of paſſion, and heighten the pleaſure of enjoyment. In moſt of the animals the male is larger and more beautiful than the female. In the birds of prey this order is reverſed. The males of ſome genera differ widely from the females:

'The glow-worm, an animal condemned to crawl perpetually on the ſurface of the earth, is a female; and the male, inſtead of a reptile, is a ſcarabæus, or beetle, furniſhed with four wings. A ſpecies of phoſphorus, emitted from the body of the female, excites the attention of this apparently ſtrange male, who darts down upon her, and actually enables her to continue the kind. The female of another ſpecies of beetle is a perfect reptile, and has not the ſmalleſt veſtige of wings; but the male is a real beetle, with four wings, and is ſo diſproportioned to the female in ſize, that their junction ſhould appear to be equally ſingular as that of a ram and an elephant. With regard to the pucerous, or vine fretters, the males are winged; but the females remain during life totally deſtitute of wings. In ſome ſpecies of them, however, the females have wings, and theſe inſtruments of motion are denied to the males. Between the ſize of the male and female pucerous there is likewiſe a remarkable diſproportion. The males, particularly thoſe which have no wings, are ſo comparatively ſmall that they run about like the gall-inſects upon the backs of the females. While this exerciſe continues, which is often very long, the female remains almoſt motionleſs. The more inſenſibility and liſtleſſneſs ſhown by the female, the male exhibits the greater ardour and agility. In this ſituation he paſſes days without taking any nouriſhment.'

In man, in the dog, in the cat, if ever hermaphrodites occur, it is very rare. But it is not uncommon to meet with them in the horſe, the aſs, the ox, and the ſheep. When a cow brings forth twins, the one a male, the other has the marks of both ſexes, and is named a *free-martin*. In its figure it reſembles the ſpayed heifer. It is conſiderably larger than the bull or cow, and its horns are ſimilar to thoſe of the ox. It does not breed, or diſcover the ſmalleſt inclination for the male. It can be eaſily fattened, and its fleſh has a delicate flavour. The Romans ſeem to have been acquainted with it, and from its mixed nature termed it *taura*.

In the next ſection of this chapter Mr. Smellie combats, with great ingenuity, the doctrine of the ſexualiſm of plants. The theory of Linnæus is founded chiefly on analogy. *Omne vivum ex ovo* is the maxim conſtantly re-echoed. But even in the animal kingdom this beautiful fabric is annihilated. Numberleſs ſpecies of the vine-fretters, millepedes, and infuſion animalcules, propagate without the aſſiſtance of the male. If the analogy be thus interrupted, why ſuppoſe it to extend to the plants? Beſides, in the oviparous animals, the eggs are impregnated while in their gelatinous ſtate. But in the vegetable tribes

tribes the seeds have acquired considerable bulk and solidity before they are supposed to receive the influence of the fecundating dust. In the dioicous plants the difficulties which occur are still greater. The seeds are often perfect before the male flower is expanded. But plants are also propagated, and often to the best advantage, by suckers, slips, and cuttings. Here is again a deviation from the general principle. The only plausible fact brought in favour of the sexual system is the culture of the date-bearing palm-tree. The Arabians have, from the most remote ages, been accustomed to suspend the flowering branches of the males over the female-trees. But this may be a superstitious practice, and not essential to the propagation. Mylius endeavoured to remove this objection by relating an experiment made at Berlin. Mr. Smellie's remarks are pertinent:

'Berlin is not the climate of palm-trees. The tree he informs us bore flowers and fruit for thirty years before the trial was made; but the fruit, it is said, never came to maturity. Plants seldom produce ripe fruit in a climate not adapted to their nature until they have grown there a long time. According to the usual course of exotic plants, therefore, it is natural to think that, like American aloes, the tree, during all this time, was making gradual advances toward perfection; that, when the male branch happened to be suspended over the female, the plant had arrived at the highest degree of maturity it could ever acquire in the climate of Berlin; and of course that the accidental circumstance of suspending the male branch over it, at this critical period, might give rise to the deception of attributing the ripening of the fruit to the presence of the male branch. The production of 100 ripe fruit only the first year, and 2000 the second, is a strong corroboration of the matter. To convince any man that the fertility of this tree was solely owing to some impregnating virtue communicated to it by the male, a branch should have been suspended over the female one year, and omitted the next, and so on alternately for a succession of seasons; or, as the sexualists would express it, giving her an husband one year, and denying her that gratification the next.'

To account for the impregnation of the dioicous plants, the sexualists have had recourse to the winds, which they suppose convey the male dust to immense distances, and are the vehicles of the amours of the vegetable kingdom. But what a fortunate concurrence of circumstances is required that the farina should be carried twenty miles, and dropped upon the solitary female? Is not the probability almost infinite that such an event would not take place? The sexualists have supposed that the varieties which appear in the culinary plants are produced by the intermixture of the species. But it is unnecessary to recur to this supposition. Cultivation alone occasions important changes;

and theſe can be increaſed or diminiſhed according to the attention that is employed. Mr. Smellie relates an experiment made on the female *lychnis*, a native of Britain, which ſeems totally irreconcileable to the hypotheſis of Linnæus:

'I applied to my learned and ingenious friend Dr. Daniel Rutherford, now profeſſor of Botany in the univerſity of Edinburgh, who, at that time, had a ſmall garden, or rather a little area, in the heart of the city, which was ſurrounded with houſes of five and ſix ſtories high, and diſtant from any male lychnis about an Engliſh mile. Dr. Rutherford received this female lychnis into his garden. The firſt ſummer after her admiſſion, being enfeebled by her former three years confinement, ſhe dropped her flowers, without producing fertile ſeeds. During three or four ſucceeding years, however, ſhe remained in the ſame ſituation; and ſhe not only ripened her ſeeds, but theſe ſeeds vegetated, without the poſſibility of any male impregnation; for the doctor, after the young plants were in a ſtate of diſcrimination, uniformly extirpated all the males, and never could diſcover the veſtige of a ſingle male upon the female plants. The female progeny, however, continued to bear fertile ſeeds for ſeveral ſucceſſive generations.'

Bonnet and Spalanzani have made ſeveral experiments upon this ſubject, the reſult of which tends directly to overthrow the ſyſtem of the ſexualiſts. In the *cucumber*, the *gourd*, the *pompion*, and other moncecious plants, the male flowers, which grow in different parts of the ſame individual, were found not to be eſſential to the fructification. The ſame was remarked in thoſe plants of which the individuals are ſuppoſed to be of different ſexes and remote.

What are we to conclude from all theſe facts? Is the laboured hypotheſis of Linnæus, after receiving for a conſiderable time the ſanction of the learned, deſtined to periſh? Its exiſtence undoubtedly has never been demonſtrated, and, in many caſes, it is not eſſential. But may it not ſtill be, in a certain degree, founded in nature? If the great law of the union of ſexes be ſometimes interrupted in the animal kingdom, ought we not to expect it to be oftener diſpenſed with in the vegetable? Linnæus, indeed, traces the analogy to a ridiculous and indecent length; and the alluſions which he ſo often makes betray the vulgarity and coarſeneſs of his mind. But, notwithſtanding its numerous defects, his ſyſtem is the beſt that has been yet propoſed; and though the theory with which it is allied were not founded in nature, it muſt ſtill be valued as at leaſt an eaſy and diſtinct mode of claſſification.

Chap. X. treats of the *puberty of animals*. At that period a remarkable change is rapidly produced in both ſexes. In the male the voice becomes rancous, and gradually ſettles into a deeper note, the body makes a ſudden ſpring, and acquires activity

activity and ſtrength; the underſtanding becomes enlarged and vigorous, and the heart, not frozen by the coldneſs of after ſcenes, is open and generous. In the female, the complexion acquires a freſher bloom, the form more round and graceful, and her delicacy and her charms become irreſiſtible. A warm climate and generous food haſten the period of puberty.

The ſubject of Chap. XI. is *love*. The firſt object of this paſſion is the multiplication of the ſpecies; but it is the cement of ſociety, and the ſource of all the endearments of life. In the ſavage ſtate it is cold and indiſcriminating; in the torrid regions it riſes into frenzy, and burns with ſelfiſh fury. In temperate climates it ſelects the fair object, it is placid and exhilarating, it diffuſes ſerenity over the frame, and warms the heart with benevolent affections. In this happy ſtate it checks the irregularity of conduct, and, ſoothing the mind, it leads to honour and virtue:

'A young man in love thinks that the eyes of his favourite continually behold him. Through this amiable medium he views all his actions, and even his thoughts. His affection and veneration are ſo great that he is, in ſome meaſure, deterred from regarding any other woman, and, what is of more importance, from indulging any looſe or irregular appetite. The diſpoſitions and affections of the female are the ſame with thoſe of the male. Her attention is completely engroſſed; and ſhe never thinks or dreams of any man, but of him who is the object of her affection. A young man and a young woman in love exhibit the moſt innocent and the moſt amiable picture of human nature. Actuated by no intereſted motives, and regardleſs of future contingencies, they obey the ſupreme command of Nature. How much is it to be lamented that from the cruel, but perhaps unavoidable inſtitutions and cuſtoms of civil ſocieties, it is ſo often not only prudent but neceſſary to check, and even to overawe, this powerful law of Nature!'

Men of opulence and rank are the only who can obey the gentle ſolicitations of Nature. But how often are they influenced by the baſeſt and the moſt ſordid motives? Marriage is with them a mere political tranſaction. From lucrative views they embrace peeviſhneſs, diſeaſe, and inſanity. But Nature vindicates her rights. She blaſts the unhappy offſpring with weakneſs of body and mental derangement; and the puny progeny of the nobles gradually give way to a vigorous plebeian race. But the happineſs of the conjugal ſtate is heightened by the endearments of offſpring. The love of ourſelves is extended to our children, and is refined by mutual ſympathy of affection. Mr. Smellie mentions the melancholy ſhipwreck of the Halſewell. Captain Pierce cloſed his lovely daughters in his arms, and reſolutely ſhared their fate. But parental attachment is not confined to the human race:

'A bitch, during the operation of dissection, licked her young, whose presence seemed to make her forget the most excruciating tortures; and when they were removed she uttered the most dolorous cries.—The deer spontaneously presents herself to be chaced by the dogs to prevent them from attacking her fawn.—When the fox perceives that her young have been disturbed in her absence she carries them off, one after another, and conceals them in a new retreat.—A cow, at least in the domestic state, is a placid and phlegmatic animal; but, whenever she produces a calf, a wonderful change is exhibited; she instantly becomes vigilant, active, and even ferocious, in the defence of her young.—A lioness, deprived of her cubs, presents the most dreadful picture of anxiety, rage, and rapacity.—A domestic hen is a timid, indocile, and obstinately stupid animal; but when she thinks her young are in danger, she bristles up her feathers, assumes a fierceness in her eye, makes an alarming noise, and attacks in the most furious manner, and without distinction, every animal that comes near her.'

In the brute creation the parental affection ceases as soon as the offspring can provide for themselves. When the rearing of the young is a difficult and laborious task, the animals pair. It is curious to observe how human institutions counteract the laws of Nature: 'The dunghill cock and hen, in a natural state, 'pair; in a domestic state, however, the cock is a jealous ty-'rant, and the hen a prostitute.' With what horrors is the condition of polygamy attended in the East?—In all animals the season of love and the time of gestation are accommodated to their situation and the provision for food. Mr. Smellie concludes the chapter with a table, extracted from Buffon, of the relative fecundity, &c. of animals.

Chap. XII. treats of the *transformation of animals*. The change of form and constitution is not confined to the caterpillars alone; even man feels the varying hand of Nature. The quadrupeds and the birds undergo a series of transmutations. In the amphibious animals the changes are still more remarkable. When the frog first escapes from the egg, it appears in the form of a tadpole. In this state it remains a considerable time. Its fore-feet begin to shoot, the hind-legs afterwards appear, the blood is drawn into new channels, and the tail drops off. The crustaceous tribes retire into the crevices of the rocks, and every year cast their shells. Serpents, and many other reptiles, annually renew their skins. But the transformations of insects are the most various and wonderful. There are three principal periods:

'In the first period the insect appears under the form of a *worm* or *caterpillar*. Its body is long, cylindrical, and consists of a succession of rings, which are generally membranous and encased within each other. By aid of its rings or crotchets, or of several pairs of legs,

legs, it crawls about in queſt of food; and its movements are, in ſome ſpecies, remarkably quick. Its head is armed with teeth or pincers, by which it eats the leaves of plants or other kinds of food. In this ſtate it is abſolutely deprived of ſex, and conſequently of the power of multiplication. Its blood moves from the tail towards the head. It reſpires either by ſtigmata or ſmall apertures placed on each ſide of its body, or by one or ſeveral tubes ſituated on its poſterior part, which have the reſemblance of ſo many tails.'

In the ſecond period the caterpillar throws off its ſkin, and exhibits its internal parts, covered with a ſoft tranſparent membrane. In this ſtate it is called *nymph*. If to theſe is added a common cruſtaceous covering, it receives the name of *chryſalis*. The inſect is now deprived of the power of motion, and remains torpid. The circulation of the blood takes an oppoſite courſe, proceeding from the head to the tail. The organs of reſpiration are transferred from the poſterior part of the body to the anterior. Before this ſtate of imbecility comes on, the grovelling caterpillar is led by inſtinct to ſecure a peaceful retreat:

'Some, as the ſilk-worm and many others, ſpin ſilken webs or cods round their bodies, which completely diſguiſe the animal form. Others leave the plants upon which they formerly fed, and hide themſelves in little cells which they make in the earth. The rat-tailed worm abandons the water upon the approach of its metamorphoſis, retires under the earth, where it is changed into a chryſalis, and, after a certain time, burſts from its ſeemingly inanimate condition, and appears in the form of a winged inſect.—Some caterpillars, when about to change into the chryſalis ſtate, cover their bodies with a mixture of earth and of ſilk, and conceal themſelves in the looſe ſoil. Others incruſt themſelves with a ſilky or glutinous matter, which they puſh out from their mouths, without ſpinning it into threads. Others retire into the holes of walls, or of decayed trees. Others ſuſpend themſelves to the twigs of trees, or to other elevated bodies, with their heads undermoſt. Some attach themſelves to walls, with their heads higher than their bodies, but in various inclinations; others chooſe a horizontal poſition. Some fix themſelves by a gluten, and ſpin a rope round their middle to prevent them from falling.'

The chryſalis is commonly ſmooth and ſhining. Its colour is papilionaceous, and ſometimes it has the rich appearance of gold. Hence the Greek name of *chryſalis* and the Latin of *aurelia*. But the inſect is deſtined to undergo another metamorphoſis. It aſſumes the diſtinction of ſex, it is inveſted with wings, and burſts from its tomb in the gaudy form of a fly. Mr. Smellie relates ſome of the more remarkable inſtances of transformation:

'The whole moth kind, as well as the silk-worm, immediately before their transformation into the chrysalis state, cover their bodies with a cod or clue of silk, though the nature of the silk, and their mode of spinning be very different. The cods of the silk-worm are composed of pure silk. Their figure is generally oval, which necessarily results from that of the animal's body upon which they are moulded. When spinning, they twist their bodies into the form of an S. The cod is produced by numerous convolutions and zigzags of the same thread. The silk is spun by an instrument situated near the mouth of the insect. The silky matter, before it is manufactured by the spinning instrument, appears under the form of a gum almost liquid, which is contained in two large reservoirs contorted like the intestines of larger animals, and which terminate at the spinning instrument by two parallel and slender conduits. Each conduit furnishes matter for one thread. The spinning instrument, as it is evident when viewed by the microscope, unites the two threads into one.'

It appears that the fly previously exists, encased in the caterpillar, and that the parts are gradually developed, and the external coverings successively detached, till the insect acquires its perfect form. Most butterflies void a large quantity of a red-coloured excrement. Hence the *showers of blood* which have, at different times, terrified the populace by dreadful portents.—Every organised being is destined to undergo a transformation. The world is constantly in motion; every thing advances to its maturity, or hastens to its decline. Hence the great mystery of Nature, that eternal circle of production and abhorred decay.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. XI. *Essais, ou Recueil de Mémoires sur plusieurs Points de Minéralogie, &c.*

ART. XI. *Essays, or a Collection of Memoirs upon several Subjects of Mineralogy; with a Description of the Pieces deposited in the Cabinet of the King of France; to which are added a chemical Analysis of those most interesting, and the Topography of Moscow, written after a Journey through the northern Parts of Europe, undertaken at the Desire of Government. By M. Macquart, Member of the Royal Society of Medicine, &c. &c.* 8vo. 580 Pages, with Cuts. Paris, 1789.

SINCE a taste for chemistry has for some years past almost universally prevailed, and given birth to a number of important as well as useful discoveries, the curious have been induced to extend their researches to every thing relating to that noble science. On this account the knowledge of minerals was never

never carried to ſuch a degree of perfection as it has attained at preſent among all the poliſhed nations of Europe; and governments have never been ſo fully ſenſible that this branch of human induſtry, which furniſhes ſociety and the arts with ſo many valuable and agreeable objects, deſerves to be encouraged; eſpecially as it muſt require long and laborious efforts to obtain a thorough acquaintance with it. For this purpoſe the obſervations of ingenious travellers muſt be compared, new ones muſt be made, and the different mineral productions of every acceſſible latitude muſt be examined with the utmoſt care and minuteneſs. Thoſe who viſit foreign countries are ſufficiently attentive to what concerns the animal and vegetable kingdom; but they generally neglect thoſe immenſe treaſures which are concealed in the bowels of the earth. Senſible of this deficiency ſeveral enlightened ſovereigns have lately engaged learned men to travel through their territories in order to examine their mineral productions; and indeed it muſt be acknowledged that ſuch enterpriſes do more honour to nations as well as princes than conqueſts purchaſed at the expence of much blood and treaſure.

For half a century an opinion has prevailed that the mineral productions of Ruſſia deſerve the attention of learned naturaliſts in general, and of mineralogiſts in particular, more than thoſe of any other country in Europe. For this reaſon the French government, which ſeems lately to have beſtowed much attention upon every thing that concerns mines, engaged M. Macquart, in the year 1783, to make a tour through the northern countries to collect ſpecimens, and to examine every object that could tend to throw any farther light upon the mineralogy of that part of the globe. This commiſſion M. Macquart appears to have executed with equal ability and diligence; and the intereſting work now before us is the reſult of his obſervations and reſearches.

The firſt memoir of this volume, which may be ſaid to conſiſt of eight, though they are divided into different branches, reſpects a ſingular change in the gypſums of Poland, which are converted into chalcedony. As a proof of this phenomenon M. Macquart tells us that M. de Carozi, director-general of the mines of Poland, among many curious objects in his collection ſhewed him ſeveral pieces of gypſum which he aſſured him were abſolutely converted into chalcedony; others in which the metamorphoſis appeared to be conſiderably advanced, and ſome that exhibited only the firſt elements of its formation.

In the ſecond memoir he deſcribes the celebrated ſalt mine of Wieliczka in Poland. This mine has already been deſcribed by our countryman Coxe in his Travels through Poland; but as M. Macquart ſeems to have examined it more minutely, we

flatter ourſelves that our readers will not be diſpleaſed to ſee his account of it here almoſt at full length.

'After examining,' ſays he, 'as far as circumſtances would permit, the environs of Cracaw towards the north, I was deſirous of ſeeing on the ſouthern ſide one of the richeſt and moſt curious mines to be found in the whole world; I mean the famous ſalt mines of Wieliczka. When theſe mines belonged to the King of Poland ſtrangers and travellers could procure acceſs to them with the greateſt facility; but ſince they have paſſed into new hands, they cannot be viſited without great difficulty. To procure a plan of them is impoſſible; and thoſe who have the direction of them are even afraid of permitting people to examine the different ſtrata of ſalt for any length of time. They muſt not take any notes reſpecting what they have ſeen; and their prohibitions are ſo ridiculous that the miners are expreſsly forbidden to ſuffer the leaſt ſpecimen of the ſalt to be carried away. The loſs of this mine, which is more valuable than the richeſt mines of gold or ſilver, was one of the greateſt that the Poles could ſuſtain. The preſent king, who is as much diſtinguiſhed by his extenſive knowledge in the arts and ſciences as by his humanity and affability, in order to gratify his ardent deſire of being uſeful to his ſubjects, has expended conſiderable ſums in endeavouring to diſcover ſome veins of this rock ſalt on the other ſide of Cracaw. I do not know whether his attempts have been attended with ſucceſs; but if it be true that the more theſe veins extend towards the north the deeper they are from the ſurface of the earth, it will not appear aſtoniſhing that great difficulties ſtill occur.

'When you have obtained permiſſion to deſcend into this mine, after putting on a miner's frock you are tied to a large rope, which is faſtened to a wheel turned by a horſe at its mouth. At certain diſtances in this rope there are knots containing pieces of wood thruſt through them, upon which people are ſeated, by means of a girth that paſſes below their thighs, and another behind their back, and when they lay hold of the rope with their hands they are then in perfect ſecurity.

'This method cannot be better compared than to that employed by tilers when they ſuſpend themſelves from the roofs of houſes. Three pieces of wood generally paſs through each knot; and, according to the number of perſons, ſeveral companies are formed, who deſcend all together at the ſame time: the number ſometimes is from twelve to fifteen. Some of the miners who go down with you hold ſticks in their hands to prevent you from being daſhed againſt the ſides of the pit; but, notwithſtanding this precaution, you cannot help being at firſt frightened,

frightened, when you conſider that your exiſtence, for a few minutes, depends entirely on the ſtrength of the rope.

'In this manner you deſcend through an opening eight feet ſquare, which extends to the depth of two hundred: the ſides of it are lined with large planks of oak, in order to prevent the falling in of the ſand, which is found in great abundance above a layer of clay, more or leſs coloured; it is very friable, and interſected with calcareous ſpar: at a certain depth are found ſeveral laminæ of very thin and blackiſh calcareous ſtone.

'The ſpaces cut out in the ſalt from top to bottom may be conſidered as ſo many ſtories. When you arrive at the firſt ſtory, by means of the rope to which you are ſuſpended, you find different galleries, one of which conducts to a beautiful wooden ſtaircaſe, ſupported by props, ſuch as is not to be found in any other mine whatever.

'In this firſt ſtory there is a piece of architecture cut out in the ſolid ſalt, and forming a complete chapel, which attracts the notice of all ſtrangers. It is dedicated to St. Anthony, and may be about thirty feet in length, twenty-four in breadth, and eighteen in height. Not only the ſteps leading to the altar, but the altar itſelf, the candleſticks, and the twiſted pillars which ſupport the roof, are of ſalt; and every thing that ſerves to ornament the chapel, ſuch as the pulpit, the crucifix, and the ſtatues of the Virgin and St. Anthony, are of the ſame ſubſtance. On the left, as you enter, there is a ſtatue as large as life, and compoſed of very tranſparent ſalt, which repreſents Sigiſmund, King of Poland. Beſides this there are two other chapels, in which maſs is celebrated on ſtated days of the year, in remembrance of certain phenomena that formerly happened in this mine, which has made ſome hiſtorians aſſert that there was once a city in theſe ſubterranean regions. It is the more aſtoniſhing that tales of this kind ſhould be propagated, as the depth of the firſt ſtory is only two hundred feet from the ſurface, and there ſtill remain nine hundred to the deepeſt part of the mine.

'The greater part of the galleries in this mine are ſo beautiful that they reſemble long ſtraight ſtreets; and I have ſeen ſome of them cut through maſſes of the pureſt ſalt, which reflected with the greateſt vivacity the light of the flambeaux that our guides carried to conduct us. With regard to the pretended houſes, they are only ſquare chambers, cut out in the ſalt on each ſide of the galleries, and ſhut with doors made of common deal, in which the miners lock up their utenſils every evening before they depart.

'The deeper one penetrates into theſe mines the ſalt is found purer and in greater abundance: neither ſulphur, bitumen, nor coal,

coal, is ſeen in them, as in thoſe of Halle, Tirol, and Saxony, but a great quantity of foſſil ſhells, principally bivalves and madrepores.

'The air is very pure in theſe immenſe ſubterranean regions, which are ſaid to be three leagues in diameter, where broadeſt; the galleries are ſo well cut out that the interior has always a communication with the exterior air, and none of thoſe accidents happen in this mine which do great hurt in many others. One muſt abſolutely ſee theſe mines to be able to judge to what degree of perfection the Saxons have carried the art of mining. It has been affirmed that people live here together with their wives and children; but this is falſe; the miners work only four hours, and at the end of that time they depart; but they have no occaſion for watches to tell them when they ought to quit their labour; they receive a certain quantity of greaſe or oil, with wick, ſo well proportioned that they repair to the common rendezvous when they ſee no more remaining than what is neceſſary to enable them to find their way thither. I was told that the workmen had more than once loſt themſelves in theſe mines, and that they had periſhed before they were found. At preſent they are numbered when they deſcend; and if it is obſerved that any of them are miſſing at the hour fixed for their being at the bottom of the rope on the firſt ſtory, ſome of the carpenters, to whom that buſineſs is aſſigned, are ſent to ſearch for them. Theſe miners do not in general live long, and many of them die at an early age, of diſeaſes in the breaſt, becauſe they are obliged to remain long in a bent attitude, and are exhauſted by ſevere labour, as the ſalt of this mine is as hard as free-ſtone.

'The internal labour of theſe mines is in part executed by horſes, let down into them never to be drawn up until they are no longer in a condition to work. Their ſtables, ſtalls, and troughs are cut out in the ſolid ſalt. In theſe ſtables there are great numbers of rats, eight or ten of which I ſaw eating oats in the troughs with the horſes: they were ſo familiar that they did not ſeem in the leaſt deranged on our appearance. It is generally allowed that all the horſes which labour in theſe mines ſoon loſe their ſight; and I examined one of them that had become entirely blind. Twenty-four are generally employed here, each of which draws a ſmall ſledge, made for tranſporting the ſalt from one place to another. It is to be obſerved that, beſides the beautiful ſtaircaſe which conducts from the firſt ſtory, there are alſo ſeveral ramps cut out in the mine, and deſtined for the following purpoſe: when the miners have dug out a certain quantity of ſalt in the lower ſtories, it is formed into cylinders, the fragments of which are put into caſks; theſe

caſks are then placed upon ſledges, which are drawn by the horſes up the ramps already mentioned to the firſt ſtory, where the general magazine is ſituated. When this magazine is completely filled, the caſks are taken away by means of a rope fixed to a wheel, which is turned by a horſe at an opening formed for that purpoſe.

'Beſides ſeveral openings of this kind, which are deſtined for a particular uſe, there are in ſeveral places common ladders, placed in an inclining direction, which have a communication with each other, from the top of the mine to the loweſt gallery. Theſe ladders enable the miners to deſcend and go up, becauſe if they went up by the rope they would waſte a great deal more time.

'I was aſſured in the year 1785 that the number of workmen employed in this mine did not exceed eight hundred; but Mr. Bernard relates that when he was there they amounted from twelve hundred to two thouſand. The quantity of ſalt dug out and exported has perhaps become leſs conſiderable ſince the diſcovery of ſeveral ſalt mines in Germany; but this will always have the preference over others on account of the facility of working it, the goodneſs of the ſalt, and the inexhauſtible ſupply which there is of that ſubſtance.

'Though the arches of theſe galleries are very bold, no danger is to be apprehended from them, becauſe they are lined with large beams, a foot ſquare, which are kept together with ſtrong pegs. The quantity of wood employed to ſupport theſe galleries is immenſe, and it remains there perfectly ſound for many centuries; all the other pillars, whether of brick, cement, or ſalt, ſoon decay and are deſtroyed.

'The manner in which this mine is daily wrought is very ingenious. The maſter-miner firſt marks out the dimenſions which he requires in the pieces of ſalt to be cut from the ſolid maſs. Each block is generally eight feet in length, four in breadth, and two in thickneſs. After he has marked out a certain number, the workmen begin by making upon one ſide ſeveral holes, inclining a little downwards, three inches deep, and at the diſtance of ſix inches from each other. They then make a lateral groove from top to bottom, half an inch in depth, and putting large iron wedges into each hole, they ſtrike them alternately with hammers, following their inclination. As theſe wedges ſink into the ſalt an aſtoniſhing echo is heard throughout the whole mine. When the block is ready to detach itſelf a lateral fiſſure is formed in the upper part, and another in the direction of the holes; the workman then takes a piece of wood, two or three inches ſquare, introduces one end of it into the fiſſure made by the wedges, and preſſing upon it as on a lever, a

crashing

craſhing noiſe is heard, which announces the fall of the block; when it falls upon a ſmooth place it remains entire, otherwiſe it breaks into five or ſix pieces.

'The miners think they give a grand treat to ſtrangers who viſit theſe mines when they detach whole blocks in their preſence. Each of them cuts out four regularly every day. Theſe blocks are afterwards divided into three or four pieces, which are cut into the form of barrels or cylinders, in order to render them eaſier of tranſportation.'

The third memoir of this work contains an account of the gold mine, or rather mine of auriferous iron, at Bereſof in Siberia. The gold is found in the cells of a ſpecies of quartz, but it adheres ſo ſlightly that it may be eaſily ſhaken out when the quartz is broken to pieces. This is the richeſt gold mine in that country, as far as relates to purity and weight. From the third of an ounce to an ounce of gold duſt may be obtained from a quintal of the mineral.

The fourth memoir contains an account of the mine of red lead in Siberia; and the fifth a chemical analyſis of this ſubſtance. The ſixth memoir relates to the copper mines of Siberia; the ſeventh to the iron mines of that country; and the eighth to the tranſparent calx of lead found at Nerchinſky. In the laſt memoir the author has given a very curious topographical deſcription of the city and environs of Moſcow, with obſervations on the air, the productions of the ſoil, and the manners and cuſtoms of the inhabitants, which will be read with pleaſure by medical gentlemen, as M. Macquart ſeems to have paid particular attention to the diſeaſes which prevail in that climate during the different ſeaſons.

ART. XII. *Biographical Sketch of the Life and Writings of M. de Romè de l'Iſle.*

M. De Romè de l'Iſle, diſtinguiſhed by his knowledge in chemiſtry and natural hiſtory, was born at Gray in Franche-Comtè, in the year 1736. Scarcely had he finiſhed his ſtudies in the univerſity of Paris when he was ſent to India in 1757, as ſecretary to a detachment of engineers; and, after being a victim, like many others of his countrymen, to the treachery of Lally, he was taken priſoner at Pondicherry, and conducted by the Engliſh to Tranquebar and China; but at length in 1764 he was permitted to return to Europe.

Though M. de Romè de l'Iſle was then only twenty-nine years of age he had an ardent deſire for ſtudying natural hiſtory; and having been fortunate enough to form an acquaintance with

Mr.

Mr. Sage, at preſent profeſſor of mineralogy in the ſchool of mines, who had then begun his chemical career with ſucceſs, that gentleman admitted him as a partner in all his ſcientific labours, aſſiſted him with his purſe, procured him every opportunity of acquiring ſuch knowledge as might be uſeful to his views; and in ſhort rendered him all the ſervices which friendſhip requires, and which it alone knows how to appreciate.

The chemical lectures, which before this period had been read at Paris, were directed principally towards the improvement of phyſic and pharmacy; but Mr. Sage, in imitation of the Swedes and Germans, was determined to direct his towards the improvement of mineralogy. For this purpoſe he began to form a valuable collection of ſtones, foſſils, and minerals; and it was by ſtudying theſe objects that M. de l'Iſle firſt acquired a taſte for that ſcience.

It was not, however, in mineralogy that he made his firſt appearance before the public. Tremblay, Réamur, Juſſieu, and others, had given an account of freſh-water polypes, and their ſingular manner of exiſting; but they had not explained all the phenomena which they exhibited. By long reflection M. de l'Iſle was induced to believe that each polype might be conſidered as a bag which formed a retreat for an infinite number of ſmall animals, all diſtinct from one another, but ſtill concurring to the ſame end. The work containing his obſervations on this ſubject is entitled *A Letter from M. Romè de l'Iſle to M. Bertrand on freſh-water Polypes.* It was publiſhed in 1766, and is now become exceedingly ſcarce.

About this time Mr. Davila, who poſſeſſed the moſt extenſive collection of natural hiſtory in Paris, wiſhing to diſpoſe of it, choſe M. de l'Iſle to write a deſcriptive catalogue of what it contained. The latter, aſſiſted by Mr. Sage, inſtead of a ſimple catalogue formed three large volumes in octavo, which gained him great applauſe, particularly from naturaliſts. This circumſtance gave M. de l'Iſle an opportunity of becoming acquainted with M. d'Ennery, a zealous collector of medals, and a warm protector of all thoſe who had a taſte for the arts and the ſciences. Though their ſtudies were directed towards different objects, an intimacy commenced between them; and M. d'Ennery having propoſed to M. de l'Iſle to lodge at his houſe, the latter readily accepted his offer.

While M. de l'Iſle reſided with M. d'Ennery, perfectly at his eaſe, and freed from the embarraſſing cares of life, he continued his reſearches in mineralogy during the years 1769 and 1770, and in the year following publiſhed the reſult of them under the modeſt title of *An Eſſay on Chryſtallography; or, A Deſcription of the geometrical Figures peculiar to different Bodies of the mineral Kingdom,*

dom, commonly known under the Name of Chryſtals. This work, however imperfect it may appear when compared with what the author did afterwards, was much ſuperior to that of Linnæus. The latter had deſcribed about forty ſpecies of chryſtals, but M. de l'Iſle gave an account of an hundred and ten, which he afterwards increaſed to four hundred. This eſſay firſt raiſed M. de l'Iſle's reputation; when it appeared the greater part of the mineralogiſts of Europe thought it their duty to correſpond with a man who announced ſuch extenſive views; and he received a letter from the Pliny of the North, dated Upſal, May the 19th, 1773, in which that learned naturaliſt ſays, 'Inter opera hoc 'ſeculo elaborata mineralogica certe chriſtallographia tua pri-'maria eſt. Teſtatur acerrimum tuum ingenium, obſerva-'tionum numerum immenſum, lectionem ſtupendam, et tamen, 'quod rarum eſt, animum in me mitiſſimum.'

In the year 1775 M. de l'Iſle was admitted a member of the academies of Mayence and Stockholm; and in 1780 the ſame honour was conferred upon him by that of Berlin. Theſe celebrated ſocieties, which, without waiting for ſolicitations, ſearch out merit wherever it may be concealed, thought M. de l'Iſle's works ſufficient to entitle him to this diſtinction; but he found the caſe very different in France, where, as well as in England, intereſt rather than talents conducts to literary honours. At the requeſt of his friends M. de l'Iſle offered himſelf a candidate for becoming a member of the Academy of Sciences; and with this view he preſented his eſſay on Chryſtallography, and read his excellent memoir *On the Changes which take place in different metallic Mines, and particularly in martial Pyrites*; but the grand and new ideas contained in theſe two works were not perceived, and one of the greateſt geniuſſes of France was thought unworthy of a ſeat at the Louvre.

M. de l'Iſle, however, who had taken this ſtep contrary to his own inclination, merely that he might gratify the deſire of his friends, was not at all affected by his diſappointment, for he was conſcious that the merit of his labours was ſo great that it would never hurt his reputation. The whole diſgrace of it, indeed, fell upon the academy, and ſome of its members, who, to favour a perſon whom they protected, called M. de l'Iſle *a catalogue maker.*

This title may indeed be given him with great propriety, for he made eight catalogues in the courſe of his life, viz. that of Davila in 1767; Forſter's firſt in 1769; that of Boucher in 1770; Forſter's ſecond in 1772; that of Beoſt in 1774; that of Gouffier and Pigache in 1776; Forſter's third in 1777; and Forſter's fourth in 1782. But a perſon muſt be very ignorant who cannot diſtinguiſh the labours of a man of letters, who is

deſirous

desirous of extending his knowledge, from those of the mechanic, who wishes only to acquire money. M. de l'Isle's catalogues will always be considered as interesting works, on account of the valuable observations which are found scattered throughout them.

In 1778 M. de l'Isle, in conjunction with M. Demeste, published an explanation of the chemical theory then adopted by M. Sage, and in 1779 a memoir against the system of a central fire. This memoir, which went to a second edition, accomplished its end so well, that Buffon himself could not help praising it.

These great labours did not prevent M. de l'Isle from collecting materials for a second edition of his Chrystallography. This second edition, or rather this new work, for in its form it had no resemblance to the former, appeared in 1783, in three volumes octavo, and far surpassed the hopes that had been conceived of it.

As M. de l'Isle had never solicited for any place or pension he had consequently never obtained any; but in 1785 his friends procured for him one of six hundred livres from the public treasury, called then the royal treasury; and in 1789 another of four hundred livres from the king. These supplies came so much the more seasonably as he had the misfortune to lose his patron M. d'Ennery in 1786, and at the same time all the advantages which he derived from his friendship.

M. de l'Isle being left executor to M. d'Ennery, he was under the necessity of suspending his usual labours in order that he might discharge the duty imposed on him by his friend; but as he was intrusted with one of the richest collections of medals ever formed, he had an opportunity of turning his thoughts towards new objects. By comparing the weight of some large antique gold medals with that of common medals, and, above all, with the weight of the money struck in the time of the Roman republic, he conceived it possible to discover exactly what proportion the Roman pound had with the French pound avoirdupoise; an attempt which, though made for almost three centuries, had always miscarried, and in which M. de l'Isle had the good fortune to succeed.

This discovery gave him reason to hope that he should be able to accomplish others. It had appeared impossible, before this period, to determine the value of the coins of the different people who inhabited Asiatic and European Greece, on account of the great diversity in their weight; and no one had ever conceived that this diversity arose only from the customs and laws of the nations where these medals had been struck. By a number of happy combinations and comparisons M. de l'Isle perceived that

that the Grecian money might be ranged into fourteen claſſes, all abſolutely diſtinct from one another; and he formed as many ſeparate tables, in which the drachm, with its diviſions and multiples is reduced to its proper value in French weight and money.

After determining theſe objects with the moſt ſcrupulous exactneſs, M. de l'Iſle undertook to publiſh a new *Metrology*, compoſed of a ſeries of tables which might greatly facilitate the uſe of it. This work was publiſhed in 1789, and addreſſed to the National Aſſembly of France, in order to aſſiſt them in reforming the weights and meaſures of that country. He there points out the proportion which the ancient weights bear to the modern, collects all the lineal meaſures of ſuperficies and ſolids, compares them with thoſe of Paris, and ſhews the proportion which each of them has to the reſt, from the dactyl to the circumference of the globe.

M. de l'Iſle's long and laborious exertions had for ſome years previous to his death conſiderably weakened his eye-ſight; and the tedious calculations requiſite for his work upon *Metrology*, added to the attention and care which he beſtowed upon the correction of it, rendered him at length totally blind. After this diſtreſſing misfortune he could no longer enjoy the ſatisfaction of ſurveying the different objects contained in his cabinet of mineralogy; but his zeal for promoting that ſcience was not in the leaſt abated, eſpecially as he had a happy memory, which, in ſome meaſure, compenſated for the loſs of his ſight. Very fortunately the events of the French revolution engaged the attention of his moral faculties ſo much that he was not ſenſible of all the horrors of his phyſical ſituation. His principal pleaſures then conſiſted in converſing with his friends, and in making them read to him the operations of the National Aſſembly, in whoſe ſucceſs he heartily rejoiced. His zeal was ardent, his patriotiſm was pure; and thoſe who gave him the laſt proofs of their attachment will long remember with what warmth, the evening before his diſſolution, he eſpouſed the cauſe of humanity in behalf of the poor negroes, whoſe caſe, at that time, was ſubmitted to the deciſion of the National Aſſembly.

A ſedentary life and cloſe application to ſtudy had greatly impaired M. de l'Iſle's health. His conſtitution was naturally inclined to be dropſical; his legs were often ſwelled, and he frequently experienced fits of illneſs which incommoded him much. He had juſt begun to recover from one of theſe, and his friends flattered themſelves with ſeeing him ſoon re-eſtabliſhed; but a relapſe took place, and he expired on the 7th of March 1790.

Mineralogy

Mineralogy also has sustained another great loss by the death of M. Ferber, counsellor of the mines of Prussia, who died lately at Berne of an apoplectic fit.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

For JUNE 1790.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. 13. *Doncaster Races; or, The History of Miss Maitland: A Tale of Truth. In a Series of Letters. Published from the Originals. With interesting Additions.* 12mo. 2 vols. 5s. Stalker. London, 1790.

THE absurdity of this tale is aggravated by denominating it in the title-page a *Tale of Truth*. We are prepared to admit of every thing implicitly in a professed novel. We even expect fiction to be more or less fermented by romance. It is seldom at least the less relished that it is embellished by hyperbolical description, or crowded by surprising incidents. But from a story which challenges our attention under the garb of reality, we look for nothing dissimilar to what has passed under our own observation, or that of others. Every thing monstrous, improbable, or not conformable to our experience of human life, raises suspicion. The facts stated in these letters are liable to this exception. Miss Maitland, on the eve of her marriage to Clayton, discovers his preference for another. His infidelity costs her almost her life. He is persuaded, by the influence of friends, to renew his addresses for the completion of her recovery. But she refuses to have him, merely from a generous apprehension that he may be happier with her rival. This rival, who has not one good quality but a fine person, is notwithstanding the successful candidate for Clayton's affections. He marries her, and she cuckolds and ruins him at play. Miss Maitland, who meanwhile becomes possessed of a great fortune, hears of his distress, assumes the dress and gallantry of a young baronet, and, by intriguing with Mrs. Clayton, finds means to relieve her from her debts of honour, but is discovered by Clayton, who likewise accepts of her beneficence, retires from town, buries his wife, and renews his proposals to his benefactress, with whom he is married and blessed. This strange nonsense is wrought up with considerable genius; but all the genius in the world can never reconcile us to a story in which the fundamental laws of composition are so grossly violated!

ART. 14. *The Duel; or, Nature will prevail. A Novel.* 12mo. 3 vols. 9s. Bar. London, 1790.

The heroine of the piece is left an orphan. Her father, who fled the country in consequence of a duel, was shipwrecked, and her mother fell a victim to the news of that fatal event. Her dependent situation on a purse-proud uncle exposes her to a variety of misfortunes. She is enabled, however, to preserve her innocence; and her virtuous struggles under distresses peculiarly trying, are ultimately rewarded by many respectable connections, liberal friendships, and a marriage with the man of her heart, of a noble title, and an ample fortune. Her story is pleasing and affecting, and will probably be read when many of our modern novels are forgotten.

ART. 15. *Trentham Park; a Poem. By William Fernyhough, A.B.* 8vo. 1s. Smith, Newcastle. 1790.

The description, the imagery, and the machinery, of this production entitle it to no praise. It is because dulness is incorrigible that the blunders of mediocrity are beneath criticism. Here is, however, profusion of adulation, in very insipid verse, doing homage at the shrine of greatness. And the idolatry is so debasing to our common nature, that we never wish to see such orgies more respectably performed.

ART. 16. *Original Novels, Poems, and Essays. By Harriet Squirrel.* 12mo. 3 vols. 10s. 6d. Sold by the Author, No. 7, Denmark-Street, Soho. London, 1790.

These volumes, though not the production of extraordinary genius, contain both amusement and instruction for many readers. There are *babes* in literature as well as religion, who require to be *fed* with its *milk* and not its *strong meat*. To them the work before us may be acceptable. The *essays* will furnish them with morality, and even devotion; the *novels* will help them to kill their leisure hours; and the *poems*, which in truth are in some places very pretty, must be agreeable to all who have taste enough to relish them. We heartily wish the fair writer all the success she deserves, both as an authoress and bookseller.

ART. 17. *The Clandestine Lovers; a Novel in a Series of Letters.* 12mo. 2 vols. 5s. Noble. London, 1790.

These letters are well written, but without incident. They consist of recriminations between relations concerning a girl in love with a worthy man who has no fortune. This defect is, however, remedied at last by the decease of a rich uncle in India, who leaves all his wealth to his nephew. An end is consequently put to the *clandestine* correspondence of the lovers, who are reconciled to their friends, married, and all parties made happy. The story is simple, and decently told, but has little interest.

ART.

ART. 18. *The History of Miss Meredith; a Novel. Dedicated, by Permission, to the Most Noble the Marchioness of Salisbury. By Mrs. Parsons.* 8vo. 2 vols. 5s. Printed for the author, and sold by Hookham. London, 1790.

This volume, besides its own merit, which is by no means inconsiderable, has to plead in its behalf the peculiar distresses of its author, a widow with nine children, reduced from affluence to absolute penury. We are much pleased to see so respectable a list of subscribers, and hope the sale will continue in proportion to the merits of the work, and the wants of the writer.

ART. 19. *The Address of William Bull, Gent. to William Pool, Esq. Steward of the Manor of Bishop's Whitelands, in the South Part of Great-Britain.* 8vo. 1s. Bath, printed. Dilly, London, 1790.

This is an attempt at imitating Dean Swift's ingenious allegory contained in the Tale of a Tub; and also the Petition of Ireland against her northern sister. The author makes an apology for adding marginal explanatory notes, and pleads, we doubt not with truth, that his friends advised them. It is true Swift added some, but not two or three in almost every page. However, our author being no longer deficient in perspicuity, to make his work complete we would advise, in the *next addition*, a few more notes to direct us where we are to discover the wit of his performance; for want of these we have read the book through without discovering any; but as we are ready to impute this to our own dulness, we doubt not but his additional explanatory notes will furnish us with the necessary clue.

DIVINITY AND CONTROVERSY.

ART. 20. *A Review of the Pamphlet entitled 'A Discourse on the Love of our Country, by Richard Price, &c.'* 8vo. 1s. Faulder. London, 1790.

The writer of this review chuses rather to give the name of *pamphlet* than *discourse* to a work he conceives 'insidiously dignified with a portion of scripture by way of text.' His remarks are, many of them, extremely ingenious, and often equally just; but we wish works of this kind to be always free from personal invective, and, above all, personal insinuation. By these means only can we expect truth to make its way through all the labyrinth of prejudice and party. It surely can be to very little purpose to quibble on the terms whether the king be the servant or the sovereign of his people; why may we not consider him as both? That he is the latter, no good subject will for a moment dispute; and, while he receives a salary from the people for *services* expected of him, it is absurd to dispute whether he is the former. Nor does this leave any doubt that 'his superiority and his majesty are his own?' Whose else can they be? But let us not fall into the error we are accusing others of. We shall therefore conclude our remarks on this performance with observing that we are highly pleased with the writer's loyalty, and the warmth and firmness with which he expresses himself on political subjects; but that

we wish he would allow a similar enthusiasm to others; and in an anonymous work, written in answer to one subscribed by the author, that we had not met with accusations of falsehood, and suspicions of disaffection and disloyalty. These can only widen a breach we are sensible it must be the wish of our author, as it is of every good man, to restore by every honest means.

ART. 21. *A controversial Letter of a new Kind to the Rev. Dr. Price from a Clergyman of the Church of England.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale. London, 1790.

This controversial Letter may be justly called in a new stile. It is not only candid but good-natured, and so systematically arranged, and shews an evident disposition not to mislead the reader from the main subject, but to elucidate, as much as possible, every part of it.

'I begin,' says our author, 'by supposing that, notwithstanding the apparent violence of some of your doctrines, you are in truth a sincere Christian, obedient to the laws of God for conscience' sake, and not actuated by any [other] desire so strongly as that which you profess to cherish, the zeal of a philanthropic mind for the general interests of humanity. I have read your volume of sermons, printed a few years ago; and in that, amidst opinions which I consider as erroneous, I think there may be discovered the traces of this excellent character. When, therefore, I perceive that your expressions are generally those of genuine candour, moderation, and benevolence, and yet object to some of your opinions for wanting, as I think, those very qualities, I can form a thousand suppositions to remove the difficulty, rather than consent to conclude concerning you, as I must were I to consider those expressions insincere. I repeat it, therefore, that I address you with pleasure, as a friend to mankind in general, and among them to me; who neither yet have forfeited, nor mean to render myself unworthy of that common title to your attachment. Nor can I feel a doubt that the topics of dissent which your late sermon will supply, may be discussed between us amicably; not only without destroying, but even in such a manner as to strengthen the tie of Christian amity connecting us, whether we should on either hand relinquish or retain our separate opinions.'

The Letter, as the author observes, is divided into sections, to each of which a short title is prefixed, pointing out the topic considered in it. We shall not trouble our readers with any further extracts, but in general observe that the remarks are concise and judicious, and that the same spirit of liberality is preserved through the whole.

TEST ACT.

The public has been so long *entertained* with this subject that we shall trouble our readers with but little on it. To give an analysis of all that has been written would be only to shew the same arguments expressed again and again in almost the same words. We have therefore endeavoured to compress the whole in as short a compass as possible, and are not afraid that many of our readers will be dissatisfied with our brevity.

ART.

ART. 22. *Dean Swift's Tracts on the Repeal of the Teſt Act, written and firſt publiſhed in Ireland in the Years* 1731, 32, *viz.* 1. *The Preſbyterians Plea of Merit in order to take off the Teſt impartially examined.* 2. *The Advantages propoſed by repealing the ſacramental Teſt impartially conſidered.* 3. *Queries relating to the ſacramental Teſt.* 8vo. 1s, 6d. Walter. London, 1790.

As theſe are only extracted from the Dean's works we may ſuppoſe they are in every body's hands; we ſhall therefore only expreſs our ſurpriſe at the motive that could induce the publiſher to bring them forward at this time. If it was with a view of forming the public opinion in favour of thoſe laws, it may be remarked, that though the Dean propheſied the moſt dreadful conſequences from their repeal in Ireland, yet *that* repeal has taken place, and none of theſe conſequences have followed. This then would rather make in favour of the late application. But if the publiſher's intention was to favour the diſſenters, he ſeems to have taken a ſtrange way to bring about his purpoſe, by producing all the arguments that were at that time too juſtly urged againſt the preſbyterians. On the whole, therefore, we ſuſpect this pamphlet muſt have met with the fate of many of its numerous brethren.

ART. 23. *Curſory Remarks on the Policy, Juſtice, and Expediency, of repealing the Coporation and Teſt Acts. Addreſſed to the Nation. By W. Briſtow, Eſq.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Walter. London, 1790.

The ingenious and liberal author of the tract before us profeſſes himſelf a member of the Church of England, but wiſhes to point out ſome of the advantages that would reſult from a repeal of the teſt and corporation acts. We ſhall not follow him through the hiſtorical detail with which he traces the progreſs of diſſenters and reſtricting acts, but obſerve in general that he diſplays an accurate knowledge of the ſubject. The principal object of the performance is to impreſs the public with an idea of the policy of granting the preſent requeſt.

'The unity of the diſſenters,' obſerves our author, 'is ſaid, at this period, to embarraſs the returns to parliament. Whence that unity? From the exiſtence of the reſtricting laws; repeal them, and the bond will be diſſolved. Some families are equally divided between the church and the meeting-houſe; in others many individually attend both; theſe will ſoon find the expediency of adhering to one, which they are obliged to ſupport; and moſt probably the maſs of pure diſſenters will free their children from the future incumbrance of ſupporting two forms of worſhip by ſuffering them to become members of the church.'

We are ready to admit that oppoſition, or indeed any thing that may be deemed oppreſſion, tends only to ſtrengthen the weakeſt cauſe; and certain it is that in proportion as the ſeverity of government has relaxed the diſſenting cauſe has declined.

Our author proceeds: 'The proteſtant diſſenters are allowed to vote for, or become members of parliament, free from any teſt. Are then the religious opinions of the *loweſt dependant* on the will of

government to be more strictly watched than those of a senate? And are the remotest branches of the executive power to be guarded against the admission of persons whose opinions are heterodox, whilst those of two constituent parts of the legislature are allowed a wider range? Is this politic, is it just?' In answer to this we would observe that the wisdom and authority of the legislature is to direct the hand of the executive power, and to impose what restraints it thinks proper. That the voice of an individual, or of any number of members less than a majority could produce no effect on the determinations of the assembly; and that the moment the majority voted any alteration, that alteration would become the established or orthodox faith. Thus if the national religion is to be the religion of the majority, the imposition of any test on the legislature would be destructive of its own end by preventing any alteration that might be the wish of the community. While we make this objection we would not be thought to argue on either side of the question. It is enough for us impartially to review the arguments on both sides, and leave our readers to form their own opinion.

ART. 24. *Observations on the Conduct of the Protestant Dissenters.* 8vo. 6d. Pridden. London, 1790.

This is at least one of the best publications we have met with on this threadbare subject. The language is strong and nervous, the arguments clear and concise. In answer to one favourite topic of complaint, that the exclusion from public offices on account of a refusal to comply with the test is a mark of disgrace, our author very properly observes, 'If it be so, it may afford them [the dissenters] some consolation to reflect that they share it in common with the heirs to his majesty's throne, which, as the law now stands, they can never ascend till they have given the same public testimony of their religious principles.' After this some strong and pointed language of Dr. Priestley and other dissenters is produced to shew the danger of admitting *any thing* where *so much* is required.

ART. 25. *Observations on the Conduct of the Protestant Dissenters, No. II. By the Author of the First Number. Dedicated to the Bishop of Lincoln.* 8vo. 6d. Pridden. London, 1790.

This second part is chiefly directed against Dr. Price's Sermon, in which we should have thought the ingenious author might have found enough to reprehend without descending to personality. The same closeness of reasoning, fluency of style, and boldness of expression, is preserved in this as we approved of in the former number.

ART. 26. *Public Documents, declaratory of the Principles of the Protestant Dissenters, and proving that the Repeal of the Corporation and Test Acts was earnestly desired by King William the Third and George the First, and also by many respectable Members of the Church of England, of high Rank and Situations, both in Church and State, during their Reigns.* 8vo. 6d. Birmingham, printed. Johnson. London, 1790.

After a short but well-written preface in favour of the application for repealing the above acts, the author produces a great number of

of public documents to shew that such a measure has been, at different times, the wish of the moderate and disinterested part of the House of Lords; that the dissenters have always been forward in expressing their loyalty to the present family; and that the sovereigns have never doubted their zeal. That it appears by speeches from the throne, and delivered by the Lord-Lieutenant in Ireland, how much it was the wish of William the Third and George the First not to be deprived of the services of subjects whose attachment they were so well satisfied with. The authorities whence the papers are extracted being all produced, we have only to state the design of the publication, and recommend such of our readers as wish for further information to peruse the work itself.

ART. 27. *Observations on Dr. Price's Revolution Sermon, and on the Conduct of the Dissenters and Mr. Pitt respecting the Repeal of the Test Act, and the English Representation in Parliament; with Remarks on the public and private Character of the Minister and his Opponents.* 8vo. 2s. Printed for the Author, and sold by Fores, &c. London, 1790.

To these observations is prefixed a dedication to his Grace of Canterbury, in which his Lordship's moderation is highly extolled, 'as it must always and necessarily be in the power of the *Archbishop of Canterbury* to crush to atoms these wolves *in sheep's clothing, these hydra-headed monsters of disputations, these anti-christs of religion*; so it is with peculiar pleasure the friends of the national clergy view the moderation displayed by your Grace,' &c. If his Grace does not give the author a living—or a *dinner*, we fear the book will be written to very little purpose.

The dedication is succeeded by some Latin words, which, whether they be cabalistical, or intended as a second dedication to some other persons (under the idea that his Grace of Canterbury, like ourselves, might not know whether to himself or not), we will not pretend to determine. We have next a prefatory advertisement, in which the author studies the same obscurity in his French, if he means it as such—'And this discourse, which, by a French term, and to it the *politesse* of the Doctor will hardly object, may be considered as the *coup de grace, coup d'æiul*, or,' &c.

After having thus criticised the two dedications and the prefatory address, our readers will not be so unreasonable as to expect we should say any thing of the work, especially as the author is induced, 'with all due humility, deference, and respect, to submit these few observations on this *excellent* discourse, *weak* and *imperfect* as they unquestionably are' [we would not be so rude as to doubt the author's word], 'to the judgment of the public tribunal,' only 'in the hope that they may arouse the attention, promote the odium of it to such a degree as to procure some more able—advocate,' &c.—*Prefatory Advertisement*, p. 2.

In general, however, we may say, that if the remarks are not '*just* and *proper*,' they appear 'aculeate*;' if we understand the meaning of that word.

* See page 2.

ART. 28. *A Scourge for the Diſſenters, or, Non-conformity [illegible] occaſioned by the Application intended to be made this Seſſion of Parliament for the Repeal of the Corporation and Teſt Acts. With Animadverſions on Dr. Price's Sermon, preached at the Old-Jewry Meeting-Houſe, on the 4th of November, 1789. In an Addreſs to both Houſes of Parliament. By an Eccleſiaſtic.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Printed for the Author, and publiſhed by Parſons. London, 1790.

As the Lords and Commons have acted on the principles propoſed by this eccleſiaſtic, we are ready to give him the credit of contributing his *mite* towards it; but, in our little opinion, argument would have more weight with thoſe reſpectable bodies than declamation; nor do we conceive ſuch an hiſtorical detail neceſſary for men we ſuppoſe already well informed on every ſubject connected with the hiſtory of their own country. The remarks on Dr. Price's ſermon are ſhort and juſt.

ART. 29. *A Letter to the Rev. John Martin, occaſioned by his intended Speech on the Repeal of the Teſt and Corporation Acts. By no Reverend Diſſenter.* 8vo. 6d. Johnſon. London, 1790.

In this ſmall tract we perceive much ill humour. They who cannot manage controverſy with temper ought to leave it to thoſe who can. It requires at leaſt much more genius than falls to the ſhare of our author to atone for the profuſion of illiberal inſinuation, miſconſtruction, petulance, and dogmatiſm, which diſgraces his remarks, and but too plainly betrays the ſpirit of the party. We know no cauſe and no ſubject on which it is unbecoming to write in the language of a gentleman. And ſurely there is nothing in the queſtion before us that can juſtify the want of *good manners*.

ART. 30. *The Debate in the Houſe of Commons on the Repeal of the Corporation and Teſt Acts, March 2, 1790, containing the Speeches of Mr. Fox, Sir Harry Houghton, Meſſrs. Pitt, Powis, Burke, S. Smith, Tierney, Martin, Beaufoy, Yorke, W. Smith, Wilberforce, and Sir William Dolben.* 8vo. 1s. d. Stockdale. London, 1790.

We need only announce this publication to our readers, every argument brought on one ſide being anſwered on the other with all the abilities of the moſt conſiderable ſpeakers in that venerable aſſembly.

ART. 31. *Two Speeches delivered in the Houſe of Commons on Tueſday the 2d of March, 1790, by the Right Hon. Charles James Fox, in Support of his Motion for a Repeal of the Corporation and Teſt Acts.* 8vo. 2s. Debrett. London, 1790.

Without entering into the merits of the argument contained in theſe truly eloquent harangues, we ſhall only in general obſerve that all that can be ſaid againſt a meaſure the wiſdom of the nation has thought proper to adopt, is contained in them, and expreſſed in language the moſt forcible, brilliant, and correct.

ART.

ART. 32. *A Letter to a Friend on the Teſt Act. By a Chriſtian Believer, Philanthropiſt, and North Briton.* 8vo. 1s. Stockdale. London, 1790.

The author, from the ſingularity of the title-page, ſeems to entertain no mean idea of his own abilities; and far be it from us to depreciate them. His letter, however, contains nothing new or convincing on an argument which has engaged ſome of our beſt writers. And we take our farewell of him by modeſtly hinting that, in our opinion, there are a few profeſſions in which he might appear more reſpectable, and perhaps do more good, than as an *author*.

ART. 33. *A Letter to the Parliament of Great-Britain on the intended Application of the Proteſtant Diſſenters for obtaining a Repeal of the Corporation and Teſt Acts. By a Member of the Univerſity of Cambridge. To which is added a genuine Extract of a Letter from King Charles the Firſt to his Son the Prince of Wales, afterwards King of England.* 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. London, 1790.

This is one of thoſe fugitive publications that never will be read after the period that produced it. We do not ſee the propriety of the extract from the Letter of Charles the Firſt, as his authority will go but a ſhort way with moſt readers. The author's own addreſs is a much ſuperior performance. He ſeems maſter of an elegant elocution, and has the decency not to preſume too much on the leiſure and patience of his readers.

DIVINITY.

ART. 34. *A Sermon, preached in the Cathedral Church of St. Peter, York, before the Hon. Sir John Wilſon, Knt. one of his Majeſty's Juſtices of the Court of Common Pleas, on Sunday, July 26, 1789. By the Rev. Matthew Rayne, A. M. Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Publiſhed at the Requeſt of the Gentlemen of the Grand Jury.* 4to. 1s. York, printed. Robinſons, London. 1789.

In this elegant little compoſition Mr. Rayne takes occaſion, from the behaviour of Gallio to Paul, to ſhew the impropriety of the civil magiſtrate interfering in religious diſputes. Gallio, he obſerves, before he would attend to any thing on the ſubject, inquired whether Paul was brought before him on account of any injuſtice or flagrant immorality, in either of which caſes he ſhould think it his duty to give a fair hearing; 'but,' adds he, 'if it be a queſtion of names and words, and of your law, look ye to it, for I will be no judge in ſuch matters.' After a brief hiſtorical account of the ſtate of the different parties at that time ſubſiſting at Corinth, the author draws a few inferences in favour of the moſt unreſerved toleration, and ſeems to lament any reſtraining laws, however obſolete and dormant they may be called, ſhould remain in a country ſo enlightened as our own. Throughout the whole of the ſermon the moſt liberal and benevolent ſentiments are to be diſcovered; and whatever ideas we may form of the degree to which the author would extend religious liberty, we are forced to admire the goodneſs of his heart and the force of his reaſoning.

ART.

ART. 35. *A Thankſgiving Sermon, occaſioned by the happy Recovery of his preſent Majeſty from his late dangerous Indiſpoſition, preached on April 23, 1789, before the Society of Proteſtant Diſſenters at Manſfield.* 8vo. 6d. Bradford: printed for the Author, and ſold by Johnſon, London. 1790.

By ſome accident this ſermon eſcaped our notice when we reviewed the other publications on the late happy occaſion.

The author ſeems to take ſo much pains to impreſs his hearers with a juſt ſenſe of the great importance of his ſubject as would make ſuch as are ignorant of it doubt its reality. Among other things we have a *brief diſplay* of the outlines of our happy conſtitution, for the benefit of thoſe who may not have made that conſtitution their ſtudy. This is introduced by a ſentence that is either unintelligible, or that remains among thoſe diſputed points which ought not to have been mentioned in a brief diſplay. After this is got over, we have a hint at the ſlave trade, the toleration act, and the Hanoverian ſucceſſion. With all theſe adjuncts, and a few more, our author has contrived to make out a ſermon of nineteen pages.

ART. 36. *An Exhortation to all Chriſtian People to refrain from Trinitarian Worſhip.* 12mo. 4d. Johnſon. London, 1789.

By the price and ſtyle of this book we conceive it is intended for the uſe of the poor. In our little judgement, the poor may be better employed than in the ſtudy of polemical divinity. Let unitarians convince them, by their ſuperior attention to the wants of the poor, and by all the other Chriſtian virtues of univerſal charity and brotherly love, that their opinions have the greateſt influence on the heart, and they will find this will prove a more certain way of convincing the unlettered than the moſt logical arguments or ſplendid production of texts. As this addreſs is confeſſedly compiled from Mr. Toulmin's 'Free and ſerious Addreſs to the Chriſtian Laity,' it is unneceſſary to ſay any thing on the merits of the performance; we ſhall therefore diſmiſs it with adviſing that a fourpenny loaf be circulated among the cottages of the poor inſtead of four pennyworth of controverſy,

MEDICAL.

ART. 37. *Truth vindicated; or, The ſpecific Differences of Mental Diſeaſes aſcertained. By William Rowley, M. D.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wingrave. London, 1790.

Objections having been made to ſeveral of Dr. Rowley's definitions in his Treatiſe on Mental Diſeaſes, he now juſtifies himſelf by citing the authority of a number of medical writers, whoſe opinions are conformable to his own. For our part, we did not ſo much diſapprove of his definitions as we queſtioned the real exiſtence of the endemial infanity, which he repreſented as ſo prevalent a diſeaſe. On that ſubject he has delivered no farther detail of authenticated caſes; and therefore our opinion remains the ſame as before.

ART.

ART. 38. *A Treatiſe on the Strangles and Fevers of Horſes; with a Plate repreſenting a Horſe in the Staggers ſlung. By T. Proſſer.* 8vo, 3s. 6d. White. London, 1790.

The ſtrangles is a diſeaſe in horſes ſomewhat analogous to the ſmall-pox in the human ſpecies, ſo far as theſe two diſtempers are extremely general, and never incurred oftener than once. Mr. Proſſer makes ſeveral remarks on the practice recommended by the moſt eminent farriers with regard to the ſtrangles. From ſome he differs, and with others he coincides in opinion, on particular parts of the treatment. His acquaintance with the various ſyſtems of farriery appears to be extenſive; and we doubt not that the ſucceſs of his practice is correſpondent to the judgment with which it ſeems to be directed.

ART. 39. *A compendious Treatiſe on the Venereal Diſeaſe, Gleets, &c. diveſted of the technical Terms; with the beſt Methods of Cure, &c.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. London, 1790.

In thoſe ſyſtems of medical practice which are calculated for general uſe, the chief danger reſulting from them is, that perſons unacquainted with phyſic are liable to miſtake the diſeaſe, however accurately the author may have deſcribed it. This objection, indeed, cannot lye againſt the venereal diſeaſe, where the occaſional cauſe may always be ſuſpected, and the ſymptoms in general are local and characteriſtic. But there is another danger, from which empiricism cannot be ſecure, in this diſtemper; and that is, the inability of unpractiſed perſons to judge of the conſtitution and circumſtances, which cannot be defined with preciſion in any treatiſe on the ſubject. The author of the preſent work ſeems to have endeavoured at explicitneſs as much as poſſible; but, after all his pains, it is probable that the treatiſe will too often prove the means of protracting and rendering more ſtubborn, inſtead of eradicating the diſorder. The lotion, as may be conjectured, is a temperate ſolution of corroſive ſublimate.

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS

For JUNE, 1790.

THE prominent feature of this month, in the ſight of an Engliſhman, is the diſſolution of the old, and the

CONVOCATION OF A NEW PARLIAMENT.

The general election of members of parliament is ſaid to be carried on with unuſual coolneſs and indifference. In ſome inſtances, we may preſume, experience, dearly bought, has demonſtrated the folly of bartering independent fortune with the chance of civil

preferment, or of making a figure as an orator in parliament. But this circumſtance, as it is not peculiar to the preſent juncture, is not ſufficient to account for the phenomenon in queſtion. A kind of political languor ſeems to have fallen on the nation. We are unwilling to ſay that patriotiſm has decreaſed, that public virtue is not as firmly rooted in the minds of our men of rank and fortune now, as towards the concluſion of Sir Robert Walpole's adminiſtration, when the public ſpirit of John Duke of Argyle, the Lord-Chancellor Hardwicke, Mr. Pelham, his brother the Duke of Newcaſtle, Lord Harrington, the Earl of Stair, and others, rouſed an effectual oppoſition to the adviſer of a general exciſe, and the author of a ſhameful compromiſe with the Spaniards; a miniſter who crouched to foreign nations, and would have trampled under foot the liberties of Britiſh ſubjects. Neither do we affirm that there is above *half* the reaſon for oppoſition to government now, that there was at that period; for, while it cannot be diſguiſed that Mr. Pitt has forgotten his maiden * zeal for a reformation of parliament, and that he is in the high way to the eſtabliſhment of that dreadful engine of oppreſſion which Walpole prevented by fairly announcing it; it can as little be denied that he has uniformly preſented, in concurrence with the unanimous voice of parliament and of the nation, a manly and firm countenance to our foreign enemies. We certainly do not owe thanks to Mr. Pitt for any ſolicitude about our eaſe, or our enjoyment of political rights, and civil freedom. But we cannot but applaud the ſeaſonable countenance and ſupport which he afforded to the Stadtholderian party, and thereby ſnatched the provinces out of the hands of France, and threw them into the ſcale of Britiſh affluence and national proſperity and glory. In the ſame ſpirit he holds the proper language to the court of Madrid, and prepares to repel violence, and avenge inſult. Yet, although there is not really, as we have already ſtated, above *half* the reaſon for oppoſing miniſtry in the preſent general election that exiſted juſt fifty years ago, there is not half ſo much oppoſition, or half ſo much providence and anxiety about preſent proſperity, or the ſecurity and tranſmiſſion of happineſs and freedom to poſterity. It were to be wiſhed that, on the preſent occaſion, Mr. Pitt were taught to know what parts of his conduct are generally approved, and what reſented.

In nations, as well as individuals, there is a tendency to run from extreme to extreme; and, agreeably to this principle, an alternation of activity and repoſe, of exertion and laſſitude, by

* It was on this point that Mr Pitt chiefly inſiſted in his firſt, or, as firſt ſpeeches are commonly called, his maiden ſpeech.

which

which particular objects appear more bulky, and occupy too much attention and labour at one time, and too little at another. The American war, the diſmemberment of the empire, the revolution in Ireland, political aſſociations, petitions, remonſtrances, and ſchemes of political reform: theſe formed a buſy period in the hiſtory of Britain, and ſtretched the nerves of her ſenſibility and action to a pitch bordering on delirium. The fit is over, and we have ſunk into languor and lethargic indifference. The ſpirit of civil and political freedom, like vegetation in freſh ſoil, glows with the greateſt warmth in the northern diviſion of this united kingdom. In Perthſhire, which is to Scotland what Yorkſhire is to England, the great and princely family * that has predominated in that extenſive country, from the beginning of the preſent century, even under the covert of the miniſterial wing, is ſcarcely able to maintain divided empire with the aſſertors of independence.

The counties in North-Britain, by devices of a moſt flagrant nature, founded on feudal ideas, but no leſs worthy of condemnation in a moral † than a political light, are, in reſpect of repreſentation, in a moſt deplorable ſituation. The late deciſion of the Lord-Chancellor, on the ſubject to which we allude, which does both him and Lord Loughborough the higheſt honour, tends, in ſome meaſure, to rectify a moſt ſcandalous abuſe. But, to exterminate the evil radically, requires the interpoſition of the legiſlature. It is thought that the Chancellor's upright deciſion will turn the tables againſt the miniſter in ſeveral of the counties in Scotland, which groaned under an oppreſſive ariſtocracy. Lord Fife, lately created a peer, had a whole army of nominal electors at his command.

Of all the electing bodies in Great-Britain the firſt in importance is

WESTMINSTER;

the ſeat of government, of the royal family, the prime nobility and gentry for half the year, and ſuperior to all other communities in the kingdom, taken individually, in wealth, conſequence, extent, and population. As people of all ranks and conditions are aſſembled, and have an intereſt and influence in this great city, it may be conſidered, in ſome meaſure, as an

* The Duke of A——e.

† The enormities to which fictitious voting has given birth are almoſt incredible. A clergyman, and a profeſſor in an univerſity, accepted a fictitious title to vote for a gentleman to whom he had been obliged; but made a merit with the Scotch miniſter of deſerting his friend on the day of election; which he did on pretence of awakened CONSCIENCE. His treachery, it is ſaid, has been well rewarded.

index, or miniature picture of the whole nation. It is no wonder, therefore, that the Weſtminſter elections are very often conteſted with more than ordinary keenneſs and violence. The laſt election for Weſtminſter was expenſive to the candidates even beyond the uſual rate of expenditure. As it was found by experience that the voters were pretty equally divided between the miniſterial and anti-miniſterial candidates, it was ſettled, by a kind of tacit compact, or, in other words, it came, without any formal agreement, to be underſtood that there ſhould be a diviſion of political power in a body where there was a diviſion of political ſentiment. Lord Hood, it was underſtood, was not to bring forward in his hand an opponent to Mr. Fox, nor Mr. Fox an opponent to Lord Hood. There was nothing in this that was inconſiſtent with the utmoſt rectitude of intention, or that common ſenſe and equity, and even the principle of equal repreſentation did not juſtify. But a far different conſtruction was put on this compromiſe by an excellent citizen, as well as a moſt acute reaſoner, Mr. Horne Tooke, juſtly renowned for the independence of his political principles, the conſiſtency of his political character and conduct, the manly vigour of his political, and the ſubtlety of his philoſophical writings on the ſubjects of philology and univerſal grammar. To that gentleman this *paſſivity* on the part of the candidates Lord Hood and Mr. Fox, appeared in the light of a coalition! a political colluſion, for the purpoſe of monopoliſing to themſelves the ſuffrages, and conſequently invading the rights of the electors of Weſtminſter. There cannot be imagined a more conſpicuous proof and inſtance of the faſcinating power of prejudice and paſſion over the intellect, than that the logical Mr. Horne ſhould convert the very ceſſation of thoſe gentlemen from all political cabal and intrigue into a proof that they had invaded the rights of the people whom they wiſhed to repreſent in parliament. Is it incumbent, then, on Mr. Fox or Lord Hood, or have they a right to nominate a plurality of candidates for the repreſentation of Weſtminſter? That an election may be free, is it neceſſary that it ſhould be conteſted? and do the rights of electors conſiſt in being courted and cajoled, entertained, careſſed, decorated with the enſigns of party, flattered with vain hopes, and preſſed and conſtrained to vote for this or that candidate by a degree of violence? Would Mr. Tooke have the riots of 1783 renewed? Of thoſe riots he juſtly complains as the occaſions of bloodſhed and murder! When he reflects coolly on the ſubject of all that he is now ſaying and doing, he will be convinced that to leave the Weſtminſter electors entirely to themſelves, and not to tamper in the leaſt with their ſentiments and inclinations, is the greateſt compliment that could be paid to them, if they be really honeſt men, and the greateſt homage

mage done to freedom. As to the change which the new election will make in the balance of power in parliament, we cannot yet ſpeak with certainty. This a little time will determine; and we eſteem it better to wait for the deciſion of time than to hazard vague computation and conjecture. It is probable that new ſtrength will accrue to the miniſter; for though his taxes, and ſpies for enforcing them are vexatious, his ſinking-fund childiſh and abſurd, and his tobacco exciſe, and the farming of the horſe-tax, dangerous; there is undoubtedly a high degree of vigilance and activity in the miniſter, and the general courſe of his adminiſtration has been tranquil and proſperous. With regard to the ſtate of affairs on the

CONTINENT OF EUROPE,

it is yet uncertain whether there is to be peace or war. The preparations of Pruſſia correſpond to the actual force of Auſtria. And a negociation is on foot for the eſtabliſhment of peace and good neighbourhood, the grand principle of which, it is generally ſuppoſed, is ſome exchange or partition of the Catholic Netherlands. At all times, but eſpecially in the preſent times of partitioning policy, it is the ſmall powers, when involved in conteſts in which the great alſo are engaged, that are made *to pay the piper*.

THE BELGIC NATION

is ſtill under the guidance and ſcourge of the moſt malignant prieſtcraft. Our miniſtry have not yet received a definitive anſwer from

SPAIN.

That haughty nation, afraid of war, and aſhamed of the conditions of peace, ſeeks extrication from embarraſſment, in the artifices of negociation, and the new aſpects and conjunctures of protracted time.

THE FRENCH REPUBLIC

grows daily into conſiſtency and form. It has lately received the congratulations of the ſtrangers at Paris, of almoſt all kindreds and languages, whoſe deputies to the National Aſſembly may be conſidered as deputies from the genius of human nature; paying homage to that MORAL code, to maintain the authority of which, in the language of an elegant writer*, forms the *jus divinum* of nations. The National Aſſembly of France have made a great ſtride in their progreſs towards the reſtoration of natural equality and right, by the abolition of all hereditary diſtinction of rank. No more dukes, counts, marquiſſes, &c.! plain monſieur from the beggar to the king. Nor is it certain that this ſervile and flattering

* See DUNBAR'S ESSAYS on the Hiſtory of Mankind.

term

term will long maintain its ground. If the members of the French Academy ſhall be as complaiſant to the new government as they were to the old, they will diſcover that *monſieur* [my lord] originated in times of feudal barbarity, and ought to be exchanged for ſome appellative more becoming the dignity of men.

In the debates on the abolition of different ranks, it was aſked, What reward could the king beſtow on any man who ſhould ſignaliſe his virtue in the ſervice, or even be the means, perhaps, of ſaving his country. It was anſwered by the Marquis de la Fayette, that it would be recorded in hiſtory that on ſuch a day of ſuch a year, ſuch and ſuch a man 'ſignaliſed his 'virtue in the ſervice, or was the means of ſaving his 'country!'—If ſimilar ideas were entertained in the Britiſh parliament; if the royal prerogative of NOBILITATION were tranſferred from the KING and COURT to the HISTORIAN and to VIRTUE, the whole œconomy of adminiſtration would be deranged, and the ordinary courſe of affairs ſubverted. For though honour might attend egregious excellence, as a body is attended by its ſhadow: how is that numerous tribe to be diſtinguiſhed who may be miſerably deficient in point of merit, and yet whom it may be the intereſt of the miniſter to puſh forward, and whom 'the king may delight to honour?' Yet it may not, perhaps, be conſidered as wholly paradoxical to affirm, that there is a tendency, and even a deſign, on the part of our miniſtry to aboliſh all diſtinction of rank, and to reſtore primæval parity, by an indiſcriminate advancement to the peerage of all who are able and willing to make the expected and uſual ſacrifices.

ERRATA in our Article of NATIONAL AFFAIRS for laſt Month.

Page 395, after the word 'poſſeſſed,' *inſert* the right of granting.
396, after the words 'what may be,' *inſert* ſuppoſed. *Dele* viz.
Ditto, after the words 'a free opportunity of,' *inſert* being in.
397, inſtead of 'gave the preference which promiſed,' *read* gave the preference to one which promiſed.

☞ *Communications for* THE ENGLISH REVIEW *are requeſted to be ſent to* Mr. MURRAY, No. 32, Fleet-ſtreet, London; *where Subſcribers for this Monthly Performance are reſpectfully deſired to give in their Names.*

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AND

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